



DELHI UNIVERSITY
LIBRARY

DELHI UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

2D

Cl No

2:2.3

F5; H1; 3

Ac. No.

1774²

Date of release for loan

This book should be returned on or before the date last stamped below. An overdue charge of 5 Paise will be collected for each day the book is kept overtime.

[illegible]

THE PRACTICAL LIBRARY HANDBOOKS

5s net

1. THE LIBRARY OF THE FUTURE
by B M Headicar, F L A
London School of Economics, Librarian of the British Library of Political and Economic Science 1900-35, Lecturer on Library Administration (General) in the School of Librarianship, University College (University of London)
(Ready)
2. SCHOOL AND COLLEGE LIBRARY PRACTICE
by Monica Cant, F L A
Librarian of the Ladies' College, Cheltenham
(Ready)
3. LIBRARY CO-OPERATION IN THE BRITISH ISLES
by Luxmoore Newcombe, M A, LITT D, F L A
Principal Executive Officer and Librarian, The National Central Library Formerly Librarian of University College, London
(Ready)
4. LIBRARIES AND THE PUBLIC
by Lionel R McColvin, F L A
City Librarian, Westminster, Hon Secretary of the Library Association
(Ready)
5. PUBLIC LIBRARY FINANCE
by Duncan Gray, F L A
City Librarian, Nottingham
(Ready)
6. BRANCH LIBRARIES MODERN PROBLEMS AND ADMINISTRATION
by H A Sharp, F L A
Deputy Librarian, Croydon Public Libraries
(Ready)
7. LIBRARY LOCAL COLLECTIONS
by W C Berwick Sayers, F L A
Chief Librarian, Croydon Public Libraries
(Ready)
8. LIBRARY STAFFS
by Lionel R McColvin, F L A
City Librarian, Westminster
(Ready)
9. A HANDBOOK OF CLASSIFICATION AND CATALOGUING FOR SCHOOL AND COLLEGE LIBRARIANS
by Margaret S Taylor, M A, F L A
Lecturer in Classification and Cataloguing at the London University School of Librarianship

CONTENTS

CHAPTER		PAGE
	GENERAL INTRODUCTION	5
	PREFACES	7
	LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS	13
I.	THE LEGAL POSITION: COMMITTEES AND THEIR POWERS	17
II.	PUBLIC LIBRARY FINANCE: GENERAL	27
III.	PUBLIC LIBRARY FINANCE: EXPENDITURE	36
IV.	STAFF AND TRAINING	47
V.	HOURS OF WORK AND HOLIDAYS	63
VI.	LIBRARY BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT	69
VII.	VENTILATION, HEATING, AND LIGHTING	79
VIII.	ARTIFICIAL LIGHTING	89
IX.	NEWSPAPER AND READING ROOMS	103
X.	LENDING LIBRARY	111
XI.	REFERENCE LIBRARY	122
XII.	OTHER SPECIAL DEPARTMENTS—CHILDREN'S, WOMEN'S, STUDENTS', AND STAFF ROOMS	142
XIII.	BRANCH LIBRARIES AND DELIVERY STATIONS	148
XIV.	SHELVING AND OTHER FURNITURE	154
XV.	SPECIAL PROBLEMS OF UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE LIBRARIES: DEPARTMENTAL LIBRARIES, SEMINAR LIBRARIES, CARRELS, CENTRAL CONTROL, ETC.	174
XVI.	BOOK SELECTION IN THEORY AND PRACTICE	187
XVII.	RULES AND REGULATIONS: RATE-SUPPORTED LIBRARIES	212
		II

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

CHAPTER	PAGE
XVIII. RULES AND REGULATIONS: UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE LIBRARIES	230
XIX. COUNTY LIBRARIES. REGIONAL LIBRARIES	23'
XX. LIBRARIANSHIP ETHICS	25
SOME EXAMINATION QUESTIONS	26
SELECT BIBLIOGRAPHY	28
INDEX	28

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

FIG.		FACING PAGE
1.	Plan of Shettleston District Library, Glasgow. Ground Floor Supervision of all departments obtainable from Staff Enclosure of the Lending Department	<i>At end</i>
2.	Ground-floor Plan Hendon Public Library, showing the layout of the most used departments in one of the newest libraries in the London area	<i>At end</i>
3.	Figs. 2 and 3 together make an excellent example of the arrangement of rooms in a two-floor building	<i>At end</i>
4.	Exterior of the new Library of the London School of Economics, with its nearly "all-glass" front	84
5.	The new Law Library at the School of Economics, showing tables equipped with the Snead Reading Lamps and minimum of overhead artificial lighting	92
6.	Mam Reading Room, Manchester Central Library, showing Snead Table Lamps with non-solid partitions	94
7.	Table in the new Law Library of the London School of Economics, showing solid centre partitions with continuous lectern for spare books Note that one lamp illuminates both sides of each table space	95
8.	The Snead Stack Aisle Light Reflector	96
9.	Wigan-Snead Prismatic Stack Reflector, the alternative to Fig 8 when head room is insufficient to take the latter	96
10.	The "Polecon" Shelf Hand Lamp	Page 98
11.	Compton Road District Library, Leeds, showing the combined News Room and Reading Room.	104
12.	A convenient rack for the display of current periodicals. A rack of this type, 5 ft. wide, will accommodate about forty publications	108

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

FIG.		FACING PAGE
13.	Magazine Rail as installed in the Hastings Public Library	110
14.	The Steeletta "Polecon" Periodical Rack	112
15.	Manchester Central Library. General view from St Peter's Square	126
16.	Manchester Central Library. Plan of Ground Floor	<i>At end</i>
17.	Manchester Central Library. Plan of First Floor	<i>At end</i>
18.	Manchester Central Library. Section through building, showing how the columns which support the shelving constitute the structural supports for the intermediate concrete decks and the first-floor Reading Room	<i>At end</i>
19.	A Research Reading Room at the London School of Economics, showing how books on high shelving were made easily accessible by the erection of a gallery	130
20.	The new Haldane Room in the Library of the London School of Economics, with seats provided on one side only of the table	132
21.	Part of the Library of the New Jewish Communal Institute, showing the alcove arrangement between high shelving	134
22.	Snead Conveyor, showing automatic delivery of book at a service station	138
23.	Snead Conveyor, showing control station with push-button despatch and signal-light indicator	138
24.	Snead Conveyor, showing pre-selective despatch device operated only by staff key, wherever readers have access	139
25.	Convenient reference library table, 4 ft. by 3 ft., for two readers	139
26.	Plan of Halesowen Public Library, an excellent model for a small town library or branch library	152
27.	Bracket Stack in Manchester Central Library, showing Snead Stack Aisle Light Reflectors	156

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY
ORGANIZATION

*The Library Association Series of
Library Manuals VII*

THE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION SERIES OF LIBRARY MANUALS

Edited by WM E DOUBLEDAY, Hon F L A, formerly Chief Librarian, Hampstead Public Libraries, and Lecturer at the School of Librarianship, University College (University of London)

- 1 A STUDENT'S MANUAL OF BIBLIOGRAPHY
by ARUNDELL ESDAILE, M A, F S A, F L A, of the British Museum, Sanders Reader in Bibliography in the University of Cambridge, 1926-27, Lecturer in Bibliography at the School of Librarianship, University College (University of London) (Second Edition)

- 2 A PRIMER OF LIBRARIANSHIP
edited by WM E DOUBLEDAY, Hon F L A, Late Chief Librarian, Hampstead Public Libraries (Ready)

- 3 A MANUAL OF CHILDREN'S LIBRARIES
by W C BERWICK SAYERS, F L A, Chief Librarian of the Croydon Public Libraries, and Lecturer at the School of Librarianship, University College (University of London) (Ready)

- 4 A HISTORY OF THE PUBLIC LIBRARY MOVEMENT IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
by JOHN MINTO, M A, F L A, Librarian of the Signet Library, Edinburgh (Ready)

- 5 A MANUAL OF CATALOGUING AND INDEXING
by J H QUINN, F L A, Late Chief Librarian of the Chelsea Public Library, and H W ACOMB, M A, Librarian of Durham University, and formerly Lecturer in Cataloguing at the School of Librarianship, University College (University of London) (Second Edition)

- 6 A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ROUTINE
by WM E DOUBLEDAY, Hon F L A, Late Chief Librarian of the Hampstead Public Libraries and Lecturer in Library Routine at the School of Librarianship, University College (University of London) (Ready)

- 7 A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION
by B M HEADICAR, F L A, Librarian of the London School of Economics and Political Science (University of London), 1910-35, Lecturer on Library Administration (General) at the School of Librarianship, University College (University of London) (Second Edition)

- A MANUAL OF COMMERCIAL AND TECHNICAL LIBRARIES
by J P LAMB, F L A, Chief Librarian of the Sheffield Public Libraries (In preparation)

- BOOK CLASSIFICATION AND DISPLAY
by E A SAVAGE, F L A (In preparation)

- THE BRITISH MUSEUM LIBRARY
by ARUNDELL ESDAILE, M A, F S A, F L A, of the British Museum (In preparation)

Other volumes to follow

**A MANUAL OF LIBRARY
ORGANIZATION**

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

by

B. M. HEADICAR, F.L.A.

LIBRARIAN OF THE LONDON SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS AND POLITICAL SCIENCE
(UNIVERSITY OF LONDON), 1910-35, LECTURER ON LIBRARY ADMINIS-
TRATION (GENERAL) AT THE SCHOOL OF LIBRARIANSHIP, UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE (UNIVERSITY OF LONDON), MEMBER OF COUNCIL
ASSOCIATION OF SPECIAL LIBRARIES AND INFORMATION
BUREAUX

AUTHOR OF 'THE LIBRARY OF THE FUTURE', EDITOR OF "THE LONDON
BIBLIOGRAPHY OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES," 1931

ILLUSTRATED

LONDON
GEORGE ALLEN & UNWIN LTD
AND THE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

1941

FIRST PUBLISHED IN 1935
SECOND EDITION 1941

All rights reserved
PRINTED IN GREAT BRITAIN BY
KIMBLE & BRADFORD, LONDON, W.1

GENERAL INTRODUCTION TO THE SERIES

The publication of a systematic series of practical and authoritative Manuals of Library Work, which shall survey Library polity and practice in their latest aspects, is a requirement of which administrators, librarians, and students alike have long been conscious, and is much overdue.

In the Library world not the Great War alone, with its aftermath of new conditions, but also the Library Act of 1919, have marked the termination of one long epoch and the commencement of a new and yet more prosperous era. The removal of the crippling limitation of the penny rate at once paved the way for a renaissance of the Library Movement, and remarkable extensions and innovations, both in buildings and in service, have ensued. The great work of the Carnegie Trustees in fostering the development of urban Public Libraries has now been largely diverted into fresh channels, and County and Rural Library Systems now cover the country from Land's End to John-o'-Groats. The public demand and appreciation of Libraries have increased enormously, and, in response, old methods have been revised and new ones introduced. The evolution of Commercial and Technical Libraries and the development of Business and Works Libraries would amply suffice to indicate this spirit of progress, but, during the last decade or

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

so, the entire field of Library service has been subjected to review and experiment, and little, either in administration or routine, remains entirely unchanged.

It will, therefore, be sufficiently obvious that the old textbooks relating to Library practice can no longer serve, and that there is a real need for new manuals, written by persons of experience and authority, and treating of the new conditions in a full and thoroughly practical manner. It is this void that the series of Library Manuals is designed to fill, and the fact that these volumes are to be issued by Messrs. George Allen & Unwin Ltd. in conjunction with the Library Association, should afford adequate proof of the qualifications of the authors to treat of the subjects upon which they will write. If sufficient support is forthcoming the series will be made comprehensive and complete.

The volumes will be supplied with bibliographical references throughout, and will be illustrated where necessary. No effort will be spared to make the series an essential tool for all those who are engaged in Library work, or who intend to embrace Librarianship as a profession. To students they will be invaluable. The uniform price of 10s. 6d. net will be adhered to so far as possible, so as to bring the Manuals within the reach of all.

WM. E. DOUBLEDAY
General Editor

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

The favourable reception given to this work four years ago has led to the first edition being exhausted. As the demand for it continues there is justification for its reissue without extensive alteration. There seems no reason for revising the general principles laid down in the work, but pp. 169-72 and pp. 206-11 have been rewritten, and minor alterations made elsewhere in the text in order that the material should be as up-to-date as possible. Sixty-six additional questions set at recent examinations of the School of Librarianship and the Library Association have been included, while some additions and amendments have been made to the bibliography. Three new illustrations have been added, representing three different aspects of library development, and, in order to avoid re-setting of the type, notes on these have been appended to each. My cordial thanks are due to Dr. Offor and Dr. Lowe for so kindly providing me with photographs of departments of their respective libraries, and for the permission to make use of them in this work, which I hope will continue to be a stimulant for the library movement and for all concerned in and with it.

B. M. HEADICAR

1940

PREFACE

One of the first difficulties which met me whilst preparing this volume was the fact that in a "Manual of Library Organization" restricted to fewer than three hundred pages it would be impossible fully to cover every aspect of the subject. I decided that the work would be more useful if I concentrated on those matters which have not received adequate treatment in other works and on those points in planning and equipment which are almost entirely new to the library profession as a whole. I venture to express the hope that what I have written will fill a blank in library literature and that the public and members of library committees will find something of value in the volume, as well as students of "Library Organization," for whom it is specially intended. It may be argued that some of the subjects dealt with are hardly suited to a student's manual, but there is nothing here considered which it is not essential for a budding librarian to be conversant with, if he is to hold his own when faced with controversial problems which may arise at any time in his career. I have had in mind the stimulation of thought on these problems by the student as well as the presentation of facts and data on library planning and equipment. The work is the outcome of many years' research and experience in this country and on the Continent. In recent years I have had the privilege of visiting libraries of various

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

kinds in Germany, Holland, Austria, France, and Switzerland, and in addition I have had many valuable talks with their leading officials. As a result I have had much to brood over, added to a rather unique experience during the past twenty-five years as Librarian of the London School of Economics, the last fifteen of which have seen an almost continuous programme of library extension going on. Even more important, perhaps, is the fact that the School has, in Sir William Beveridge, a Director who always believed in the value of the Library. The effect of that practical sympathy is seen in the finely equipped new buildings of the Library of the London School of Economics, and, while I acknowledge with gratitude the benefits I have reaped from the experiences involved in the transformation, I should not think for one moment of suggesting that I have been responsible to any great extent for what is best in the developments. In any case, these experiences have been the inspiration for much that is within these covers. There is nothing here dealing with library buildings and their contents which is founded upon theory only. Everything has been truly tested and compared. As there are no more fields for me to conquer, I hope the opinions and convictions I have here expressed will be accepted, not only as instruction to the student of librarianship, but also as an earnest of my desire to contribute something to the literature of library science which may help on the progressive development of libraries on lines which will make

PREFACE

them more attractive, more indispensable in the life of the community; no longer the Cinderella of local government, but, in fact, the Mecca of government itself.

I express my grateful thanks to Libraco Ltd.; Luxfer Ltd. and the Snead System; and to "Steel-etta" for so kindly lending or supplying most of the blocks for the illustrations in the volume; to Mr. Charles Nowell, of Manchester, and to Mr. J. E. Walker, of Hendon, for their permission to make use of the illustrations of the respective libraries they control; and to Col. Newcombe for kindly reading through and amending Chapter XIX. To Mr. Doubleday, the General Editor of the series, I owe a special debt of gratitude. Not only did he read my manuscript through, but most carefully read the proofs, making suggestions which I have been only too glad to follow to the obvious improvement of the volume. Any errors of fact must be laid entirely at my door.

B. M. HEADICAR

December 1934

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

FIG	FACING PAGE
28. Steeletta Adjustable Steel Shelving Fig. 1 shows how turned edge of shelf drops into lug and Fig. 2 lug hanging from triangular hole, which prevents lug falling out The double punching in the front is to enable shelves to be fitted level with each other when two or more bays are joined together	157
29. Snead Rolling Case, with panelled end	160
30. Snead Rolling Cases in Toronto Public Library, showing case drawn out for use	161
31. Snead Rolling Cases, equipped with wide ends and locks, protecting contents from dust and fire	162
32. Two-way Tilted Card Catalogue Cabinet. Twenty-four drawers	163
33 Catalogue Lounge in the entrance corridor of the Library of the London School of Economics, with Tilted Drawer Cabinet, three tiers high only, to distribute consultants	164
34. Study Carrels and Low Cases in Yale University	180
35. Research Stalls, or Carrels, at the London School of Economics, showing lock-up cupboards enamelled pillar-box red, with limed-oak partitions	182
36. Leytonstone Branch Library. Exterior View	186
37. The Reading Room of the new Brotherton Library in the University of Leeds	202
38. Interior of Adult Lending Library, Southfields Branch Library, Leicester	218

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

CHAPTER I

THE LEGAL POSITION: COMMITTEES AND THEIR POWERS

The subject of this work being library *organization*, I want to make it clear at once that the various details of library routine, the "daily round and common task," are only incidentally touched upon and then only where they dovetail into organization.

Let us for a moment recall the development of public libraries since their inception in their present form in 1850, so that we may realize what great strides have taken place, particularly during the last twenty years, after a more or less stabilized period of sixty years or so. The Public Libraries Act of 1850 conferred on Town Councils of a population of 10,000 powers to provide buildings, a librarian, light, fuel, etc.; the rate to be levied was limited to a halfpenny in the £ on the rateable value; admission was to be free. There was no provision made for the purchase of books. This Act was repealed by the Act of 1855, which lowered the population limit to 5,000 and enabled

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

the Vestries of any two or more parishes having an aggregate population exceeding 5,000 to combine for the purpose of carrying the Act into execution. The rate-limit was increased to one penny in the £, which could be levied for library purposes, and provision was made for the purchase of books, newspapers, maps, and specimens of art and science. Even at that time the suggestion of newspaper rooms was objected to in the House as likely to convert the libraries into mere newspaper reading rooms and sedition shops, but the Attorney-General of the day supported the idea, saying that no knowledge was so attractive as political knowledge. In 1866 a further Act removed the population limit altogether, so that the 1855 Act was made applicable to any Borough, District, or Parish or Burgh. The prime mover in all these Acts was Mr. William Ewart. The limiting of the rate for library purposes to one penny in the £, which, with special local exceptions, remained in force until 1919, was, of course, the greatest hindrance to the full development of the library movement. It was a matter of much comment in 1855, a great many supporters of libraries, including Mr. Ewart himself, being convinced that the limit would be a great drag on progress, but there was evidence to show that the Bill of 1855 would be endangered unless some limit were fixed. Many members of parliament imagined that without a limit library authorities in the country would start a sort of race to see which could provide the most

THE LEGAL POSITION

elaborate buildings and generally go one better than their neighbours. Other members, unfavourable to public libraries, but having a great regard for Mr. Ewart, argued on these lines: "Well, it is quite clear from the very few libraries which have been established under the 1850 Act, that nobody much wants them, they will soon die from exhaustion, and as it has been agreed that the maximum rate cannot exceed a penny in the £, we might as well keep in Ewart's good books by voting for his new Bill." The Bill, therefore, became an Act, and, although various further Acts came into operation during the next sixty years, it was not until the 1919 Act that possibilities of providing a library service in every part of the kingdom, whether town or country, came into sight. The great features in this Act were the removal of the rate-limit altogether in England and Wales, and the enabling of a County Council to become the Library Authority for the whole or any part of its area, excepting only those districts already functioning as library authorities. It is interesting to note the attitude of many local authorities to this question of the rate-limit. We were frequently told, before 1919, that "there was nothing an authority would not be prepared to do for the improvement of the libraries and their staffs if it was not for that beastly rate-limit." It was astonishing to note after 1919 how the enthusiastic desire to improve the libraries died down, and took a long time in many places to revive. Naturally, the

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

aftermath of the European War had a considerable effect on the expenditure of local authorities, and the libraries were frequently the first to get the economy axe, but, making every allowance, it is quite clear that the statement in the *Report of the Public Libraries Committee*, 1927, "that there are many parts of the country in which library activity, and the appreciation of its importance, fall short of a satisfactory standard" is not an over-statement. It is certain that the lack of development in the libraries in many districts is due frequently to other than economic causes. There are still places where municipal establishments of any kind, including libraries, are anathema to many local councillors, who yet serve as members of the library committee, and who cannot be said to be keen on making their library "the centre of the intellectual life of the area which it serves." I have knowledge of instances where a councillor has been quite anxious to get a municipal bowling green or tennis court (which-ever is the pastime he enjoys most) and has been furious at the mere suggestion of spending more money on libraries, "mere gratuitous distributors of sensational novels." Again, the library is a non-revenue-producing concern, that is to say, there is nothing on the profit side which can be shown in pounds, shillings, and pence, and it frequently gets less attention than, for instance, the municipal baths and washhouses. These institutions, admirable, of course, in their place, usually have a substantial income to show from the use made of them, admis-

THE LEGAL POSITION

sion not being free, and the rate levied for them is generally a considerable one. It is not realized that the revenue from the library consists of an improved knowledge among the community, a number of people made happier by the recreative reading provided, a great body of citizens more fully equipped to carry out their vocations in life, more valuable assets to the locality, and, if to the locality, to the nation as a whole. This, to my mind, is still one of the most important points which require to be instilled into public opinion and in particular into public authorities. When this is universally accepted development will be an easier thing, and false economy will give place to true economy. /

The Public Libraries (England and Wales) Act, 1892, which is really the principal Act, empowered a library authority to provide libraries, museums and art galleries, schools for science and art. The 1919 Act cancelled the provision of schools for science and art, but sanctioned the maintenance of existing schools by the library authority. The later Act also prohibited the establishment of museums and gymnasiums under the Museums and Gymnasiums Act, 1891, but allowed existing museums established under that Act to be maintained and, if situated in a library district, to be transferred to the library authority and maintained under the Public Libraries Acts.

The 1892 Act stipulated that no charge was to be made for admission to the library, nor for the use of the lending library by inhabitants of the

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

district, but other persons could be granted the use of the lending library either free or for payment.

It should be specially noted that the appointment of committees and the delegation of powers to them differs in Scotland, where library legislation is rather more definite and less permissive than in England and Wales. The 1892 (England and Wales) Act states that an urban authority *may* appoint a committee and delegate powers to it, and that persons appointed to the committee *need not* be members of the local authority. The principal Act (1887) for Scotland lays down that the library authority *must* annually appoint a committee of from ten to twenty members, half from their own numbers and half from other local householders. Under the law there is nothing to prevent a library committee consisting entirely of councillors, but the Local Government Act of 1933 ordered that committees of local authorities must not contain more than one-third non-members of the authority, neither is there any limitation in the number of members. The result of this indefiniteness is shown in the Report of the Public Libraries Committee, 1927. Out of 327 authorities 232 had co-opted non-members of the authority to the Library Committee, and 95 confined membership of the Library Committee to their own elected members, while only 113 authorities had delegated powers to the Library Committee. The membership of committees varies in number from seven to as many as sixty-one, and one town spending just over £1,000 annually on its library had a committee of thirty-five members,

THE LEGAL POSITION

while another spending twelve times as much had a committee of only twelve members.

There is no doubt that some such definite principles, as contained in the Scotland Act, should apply to England also, ensuring a not too unwieldy committee, with a certainty of its containing some members who are not also entrammelled with parks, pavements, and police. These co-opted members are frequently the most valuable ones. If selected rightly, the committee is able to enjoy the services of bibliographers, business experts, scholars and scientists, who, while not desiring to sacrifice the time membership of a local authority usually implies, are glad to aid the institution which, to them, is the most valuable. A reasonable proportion of co-opted members, likely to bring the best results, is one-third to three-fifths of the total membership of the committee. The higher the proportion of co-opted members, so much the smaller is the representation of the library at the meetings of the local authority. Co-opted members may not speak or vote at the local authority's meeting, and, especially in the case of a *recommending* committee, it is desirable that any suggestion from the committee shall receive due backing before the superior body.

By a *recommending* committee is meant one which has to receive sanction from the local authority to any expenditure or programme it wishes to indulge in before action can be taken. That is to say, a committee to which powers have not been

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

delegated under the Libraries Acts, as opposed to a *reporting* committee to which powers have been delegated, and which takes action without waiting for the sanction of the local authority, to whom it reports as to what has been done. Readers should refer to the Acts themselves for full information on the above points and to such works as Hewitt and Sanderson. It is to be remembered that while delegation of powers enables a committee to carry out its desires without interference from the local authority, it may also mean that by losing the publicity and criticism which discussion before the local authority brings, its existence is frequently forgotten and its work is almost unnoticed.

The duties of a committee are really of a legislative character, while the librarian's duties are executive. In other words, the general policy in the administration of the library is laid down by the committee, while the librarian is responsible for seeing that the policy is carried out. There should be no undue interference by the committee with the methods adopted by the librarian to carry out the determined policy. It is perfectly legitimate for the committee to decide that the members of the library staff should work a maximum number of hours a week, but it is the librarian's task to arrange those hours in the way he considers best for the library and its users. The committee may agree to have a printed catalogue which involves the expenditure of a substantial sum of public money, but the form and character of the catalogue,

THE LEGAL POSITION

within the amount approved, is a matter for the librarian to decide. The committee is responsible for any code of rules and regulations considered expedient for the library, but the enforcement of the rules when necessary is the librarian's task. The general oversight of the library buildings and their contents, the approval of accounts for payment, the issue of reports, are other duties for a committee, but the practical work in connection with all these things should be left to the librarian. It is in the matter of book selection perhaps that differences most frequently arise between the committee and the librarian, but I deal with this problem more fully in the section on practical book selection. The best results and most efficient administration will come as both parties fully appreciate their respective functions. The less interference there is by a committee with a librarian who is known to be most satisfactorily carrying out the policy of the committee, so much the more comfortable will it be for all concerned.

Any tendency to introduce party politics into municipal affairs is especially regrettable where libraries are concerned. If there is one section of municipal work which above all others should be free from party bias it is that concerned with the public library, and it is of no benefit to a library committee to have its membership determined by the colour of the labels worn and its chairman decided by rota rather than qualifications. As the Report on Public Libraries truly states, a committee

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

“whose members have themselves little interest in the intellectual development of the communities that they represent, will assuredly defeat the efforts of the most enthusiastic staff, and will have an inefficient library as their reward.”

Except in Scotland, the appointment and dismissal of the chief librarian cannot be effected by the library committee. Generally, the selection of a chief officer is left with the committee subject to the approval of the library authority, although in a few cases the final choice is with the committee. It is in my opinion a good arrangement that the final decision as to the appointment of a chief librarian should be left to the library authority, and there seems to be general agreement that the dismissal of such an officer should certainly be a matter for the higher body to decide. The actual levying of the library rate, the raising of loans, the establishment of branch libraries are also rightly left for decision to the library authority, as in each matter it is a question of using substantial amounts of the ratepayers' money, the expenditure of which should be the responsibility of an elected body, directly subject to the will of the local community.

CHAPTER II

PUBLIC LIBRARY FINANCE: GENERAL

We have already seen that the main part of the income of the public library is obtained from the library rate, which may now be fixed at any amount the local authority feels disposed to levy in England and Wales. In Scotland there is still a maximum beyond which an authority may not go. The 1920 Act simply raised the maximum rate which could be levied for library purposes to threepence in the £, as compared with one penny in the £ previously. Any lesser sum may, of course, be fixed. The amount is calculated upon the rateable value of buildings and property within the area, agricultural land in certain cases being entitled to a reduced assessment, as are also certain local industries under the Local Government Act of 1929. Thus, a house with a rateable net value of £40, and the library rate at one penny in the £ would pay 3s. 4d. a year for the support of the public library.

Before the 1919 Act came into operation most libraries knew fairly exactly how much money they could receive from the rate during the ensuing financial year, and in the preparation of estimates it was a case of cutting the coat in accordance with a definite quantity of cloth. It was a case of "Here is so much money for us to spend; how can we

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

make the best use of it?" A library committee had therefore to work out the figures for maintenance and other charges which had to be met and the balance, if any, was available for books. Nowadays, with the rate unlimited, the procedure is changed, and a committee now bases its estimates on the likely needs of the library during the ensuing year, with the expenditure and requirements of previous years as a guide. It is then the province of the local authority to approve the estimates and levy a rate high enough to bring in sufficient money to cover the expenditure anticipated, or it may, and often does, insist on the estimates being reduced. If a committee has carefully worked out its requirements beforehand, it makes a dangerous precedent if it agrees at the demand of the local authority to cut them down. It is far better to place the responsibility for raising an insufficient amount on the local authority. Once a committee revises its first estimates and submits a lower amount, there is no knowing how often the procedure may be repeated. It is, however, essential that the estimates should represent the reasonable requirements of the library. While on this question of rate income, it is necessary to look into the rating problem as it affects different localities, especially the position in London. The general situation in London at present really amounts to this. Several districts with a high assessment value attaching to rateable property are able to provide an excellent library service on a low rate, while other districts, with a larger population, more

PUBLIC LIBRARY FINANCE: GENERAL

dependent on the public library than residents in the wealthier districts, have either to be satisfied with an insufficient service or to levy a rate several times as large in order to get somewhere near the efficiency they believe to be the minimum necessary. In the Borough of Westminster, for instance, the product of a penny rate is £43,000 (1932) and a halfpenny rate for library purposes brought in £18,600. In Poplar, however, the product of a penny rate is £2,940 and a rate of fourpence-halfpenny in the £, nine times as much as is levied in Westminster, brought in only £13,441. Comparison may also be made with Southwark and Kensington. A penny rate in the former borough produces about £5,200, while in Kensington it produces twice as much, and whereas in Southwark the libraries receive £11,759 from a rate of more than twopence, Kensington receives £10,405 from a rate of three-farthings in the £ for a population larger by ten thousand, but these surely as a whole less dependent on the public library for the supply of their literary needs. It is indeed a matter for gratification that the less wealthy districts have made such satisfactory efforts, at their own expense, to provide a library system and service approximating to what they feel to be essential, but it is quite obvious that the present position is a real handicap in many places, and it is not creditable to London that such anomalies as exist at present should be looked upon as stabilized.

A point to be remembered in connection with the library rate is that, although no limit is fixed, an

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

amount once determined cannot be varied for one year. This proviso naturally prevents developments which may become urgent during the twelve months, and as it apparently has served no useful purpose it should be modified as soon as possible, although it is seven years since this course was recommended in the *Report of the Public Libraries Committee*.

The position of the library rating problem is really not satisfactory as a whole. Out of 478 authorities which supplied details in 1932 there were 48 which still levied a rate of one penny or under, 120 between one penny and twopence, and only 82 had a rate of threepence or more. In 1911 the expenditure on libraries per head of population was only eightpence, and although that amount is now doubled, it is not quite so satisfactory as it may at first appear if one takes into account the increase in prices as compared with the earlier date. Out of 177 places no fewer than 95 were spending less than one shilling per head for library purposes and only 20 eighteenpence or more. Figures show generally that the larger the population the greater the sum per head spent on libraries. All the evidence tends to show that anything less than eighteenpence per head cannot bring really satisfactory results, while two shillings appears to be the desirable minimum if public libraries are to carry out to the full their recognized functions.

It is interesting to compare the expenditure per

PUBLIC LIBRARY FINANCE: GENERAL

head of population in this country with that in the United States. Out of 234 cities in the States of which details are given in the Report on Public Libraries, 25 spent over three shillings per head on their libraries, while 2 places only in England spent as much as three shillings, and both are in London, and only 5 (out of 177) more than two shillings and less than three, against 57 in the same category (out of 234) in the United States. It must be remembered that during 1933 a number of the libraries in the States had their incomes drastically reduced, but there is no question the Americans have a greater faith in the influence of the libraries and normally are willing and anxious to back up that faith by providing adequate sustenance for them.

I have been in town after town and have seen on watering-carts, dust-carts, and other municipal vehicles, painted in large letters, "Public Baths in — Street. Open 8 a.m. to 8 p.m." Similar notices are to be found on lamp posts and other objects, but never yet have I come across a local authority's vehicle which gives similar publicity to the public library, and, in fact, it has been sometimes difficult to locate the library until one was within a few yards of it. I have paid particular attention to this matter in the many places I have visited, and nothing has impressed me so much as the fact that, while directions to the municipal baths, bowling greens, and tennis courts met one at every street corner, the library was left to be searched for. It

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

is not unfair to assume that this is due to the attitude I have mentioned—that (revenue-producing concerns are much more important in the eyes of many authorities than an institution which, without direct charge, helps to make every individual a better citizen. It is this aspect of the question which, in my opinion, the librarian should specially cater for.) It seems impossible to believe that towns with populations of from thirty thousand to sixty thousand would continue to be satisfied with an expenditure of threepence or fourpence per head if those responsible had given adequate thought to the purposes and possibilities of their local libraries. It is worth noting that almost invariably it is the towns which are spending the smaller sum per head of population which also have the smaller percentage of the population as registered borrowers. There is no question that there has been a very great general improvement in recent years, but the most decided moves upward have been in those places which have always been most generous to their libraries.

The Public Libraries (Scotland) Act, 1920, also removed the rate-limit of one penny in the £, but fixed another maximum at threepence in the £, and the same provision was in the Public Libraries (Ireland) Act, 1920, but the latter also provided that, with the consent of the Government department concerned, a county borough could exceed this by not more than another threepence. The Public Libraries (Northern Ireland) Act, 1924,

PUBLIC LIBRARY FINANCE: GENERAL

however, reduced the limit again to a maximum of one penny in the £, except in urban districts and towns where the county council is functioning as the library authority, where with the consent of the Ministry of Home Affairs a maximum of three-pence in the £ may be reached.

The library rates produce about 92 per cent of the income of the libraries in England and Wales, the other 8 per cent coming mainly from fines, receipts from the letting of halls, etc. This is an average figure for the whole country, but it is interesting to note that the average income from sources other than the rates in towns with a population of less than twenty thousand is as much as 16 per cent, roughly one-sixth of the total income, which again appears to be evidence that many devices have to be used in an endeavour to obtain sufficient money for maintenance. Clearly an unsatisfactory state of things.

Thirty years and more ago, before the days of Mr. Andrew Carnegie's benefactions, loans were frequently a substantial item in the receipts of libraries, and for very long periods the expenditure side of the accounts contained large sums for repayment of loans, which constituted a heavy tax upon the limited income of the libraries concerned. Fortunately few of these loan charges of any great amount now remain, but the power of a local authority to raise loans for library purposes still continues, and although the library committee itself does not take up a loan, the librarian should know

CHAPTER III

PUBLIC LIBRARY FINANCE: EXPENDITURE

We have already seen that the average expenditure on libraries per head of population was in 1932 1s. 4d. In urban libraries the percentage of expenditure under the various heads in the same year was as follows:—

	PER CENT
Books	17
Binding	6·7
Newspapers and periodicals	4
Salaries and wages	44
Rent and loans	8·2
Other expenditure	20·1
	<hr style="width: 100px; margin-left: auto; margin-right: 0;"/> 100

There are some notable variations in these figures, but there is a remarkable uniformity in general, and it is interesting to observe that books, the main business of libraries, still have only about one-sixth of the income devoted to them. Many of these books purchased are not entirely new to the library, a large number being replacements of works worn out or withdrawn for some reason. While the figures in the table may be looked upon as a satisfactory basis for the guidance of librarians and committees in the preparation of the estimates,

PUBLIC LIBRARY FINANCE: EXPENDITURE

it is undoubtedly true that at least one-third of the income should be available for books, binding, and periodicals. The position seems to be improving very gradually; the percentage has gone up during the last ten years, and as a rule the stocks of books in lending libraries are much brighter in appearance and less thumbed inside than used to be the case. At the same time one is bound to confess that far too many unclean volumes are still handed to the public, and in themselves are not calculated to attract, especially nowadays when the evils of dirt are continually, and rightly so, being impressed on us in speech, broadcasting, and the Press. It is important that the librarian should bear this fact in mind, particularly when the question of re-binding a book is being considered. It is frequently good policy to purchase a clean copy of a work, even if it costs a little more, than to provide a new covering for badly soiled pages.

The greatest discrepancy of all among the items of expenditure will be found under newspapers and periodicals. It is generally agreed that not more than about 5 per cent of the income should be spent on this class of literature, but examination of the figures of various libraries shows that as a general rule, but not invariably, the smaller and less well off the library, the higher the percentage of expenditure on newspapers and periodicals. In many of these instances this expenditure is considerably more than that on books, and, although local circumstances may sometimes justify some departure from

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

the average, it is perfectly clear that abnormal expenditure on one item usually results from insufficient consideration of the library's requirements and functions.

While the general average of the income of libraries expended on newspapers and periodicals is at present about 4 per cent, far too many libraries are spending more than 10 per cent, and some even above 15 per cent. Unless there are special reasons to the contrary it may be taken that 5 per cent represents a basic figure. ✓

Salaries and wages, it will be seen, take something approaching half the total expenditure of public libraries, but there are many discrepancies in their apportionment in the different institutions. The average has gone down from 46 per cent in the 1927 Report to 44 per cent at the moment, but this does not, of course, mean that salaries and wages have been reduced in amount. The decrease is represented by the quite considerable increase in income during the last ten years, and, as a matter of fact, it is quite possible that we shall see in the future that the larger the income of the libraries, the lower becomes the percentage of it paid away in salaries and wages. Percentage is not everything in this connection. A library with an income of £500 may be paying 50 per cent of it in salaries, etc., and although the percentage figure would look well in a table, it could not be argued that salaries were high in that institution because it was paying a total sum of £250 a year to its officers and

PUBLIC LIBRARY FINANCE: EXPENDITURE

servants. What sum should be considered a reasonable salary for a librarian?¹ Unfortunately there is no definite scheme of salaries in the library world such as applies generally speaking to civil servants and teachers, and it is usually to be found that the larger the town the higher the amount paid to the librarian and vice versa. Is that an entirely satisfactory position? It is, of course, obvious that the greater the responsibility resting upon the librarian, and the larger the service he has to supervise, so much the more reason is there in paying him a higher salary than could naturally be expected in a smaller place. But the difference is altogether too wide in many cases for it to be considered justifiable if a little thought be given to what is expected of most librarians, even in the smaller towns. A chief librarian is supposed to be a person with an approved standard of education as well as professional qualifications. At any rate that is what we want him to be in every instance. Granted that the librarian of the small town has a lessened degree of responsibility than his confrère in the large borough, it is rather a matter of amount than quality. He may have the special needs of one artist, one engineer, one professor, one teacher, one journalist, and one of each of many other kinds of specialists, as against ten or twenty times the number of each in the large borough, but the kind of information they would want, the quality of it, and the particular assistance

¹ See *Library Association Record*, April 1934, for the recommendations approved by the Association.

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

each would require and expect would be practically the same in both places.

From the statistics available one finds that the average salary paid to librarians in towns with more than 100,000 inhabitants is about £600 a year, for those in places with a population of from 50,000 to 100,000 it is about £400, from 20,000 to 50,000 population £300, and in places with fewer than 20,000 inhabitants it is about £200. I think nobody will argue that the librarians of the largest towns are worth twice the salary of their colleagues in other large towns, and it is obviously unfair to the latter that their emoluments should be based upon population, as shown in official returns. Excluding London in both cases, a comparison of salaries between librarians and head teachers in industrial towns and rural districts shows that while the salary of the head teacher in the town approximates closely to that of the librarian, it is only about £80 a year more than his colleague in the rural district gets, but the librarian in one of these areas may not get one-third of the amount paid to his town fellow.

For the largest towns the standard of salaries will naturally be higher than that I have suggested above, which represents a desirable minimum. Unfortunately, the smaller towns are not likely to pay on this scale, and, as I have already pointed out, they cannot expect to get the very best article at a bargain price always.

The following examples will give an idea as to

PUBLIC LIBRARY FINANCE: EXPENDITURE

the very great variations in the allotment of money to the various items of a library's expenditure, and the different ideas prevalent in different places as to the monetary value of the library staff:—

	Popu- lation	Library Rate	Income	Salaries, etc	Books	Percentage of Population Registered as Borrowers
		d	£	£	£	
A ..	30,000	1 1	1,054	628	172	7·9
B ..	208,000	1	7,786	2,623	1,685	7·4
C ..	93,000	2·2	13,685	6,246	2,230	25·7

A is a town in north-west England, spending 60 per cent of its income on salaries and wages, and only 16 per cent on books and binding. The result is that only 8 per cent of the inhabitants are registered borrowers, while the salary percentage sounds very well, until it is realized that six people have to share that £628. The second instance, B, is a West of England town, where evidently salaries suffer, while books are well looked after, they having nearly one-fourth of the total income allotted, but nineteen executive members of the staff have only £2,623 divided among them. Attendants and cleaners are not included in these totals, so that the chief librarian and his eighteen assistants are paid less than £150 a year each as an average. Case C is a London borough, spending more than 3s. per caput on its libraries. Here salaries are really sound, but books and binding

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

seem to be inadequately provided for. There are 73,000 volumes in the adult lending library, and 23,000 borrowers, plus 12,000 extra tickets, to use it, representing only two volumes of stock per ticket. Despite the fact that 25·7 per cent of the population borrow, a sum of £2,230 a year for books and binding looks to be a less generous contribution than the position deserves.

These typical cases not only indicate what is happening but also the line of reasoning to be followed by any librarian having the responsibility of drawing up a financial programme.

The question as to whether women librarians and assistants should be paid lower salaries than men may perhaps be discussed briefly here, although I deal more fully with the general problem of male and female staff later on in this work. One assumes that salaries are paid in return for certain qualifications possessed and for certain duties required to be undertaken. Whether man or woman, these requirements are surely the same in the respective appointments, and payment should be based on these requirements and not on the economic position of the individuals concerned. To offer lower salaries to a woman on the argument that it is less costly for her to live than for a man is simply a method of reducing the economic standards of the whole of the library movement and of those engaged in it, and one would like to feel assured that when women are appointed in libraries it is because they are considered to be the most suitable persons

PUBLIC LIBRARY FINANCE: EXPENDITURE

and not because such appointments may be a method of saving money.

Rates and taxes form a substantial part of the "other expenditure" of libraries, but do not affect every place equally. The position in brief is that public libraries are liable for local rates but not for income tax. Under the Scientific and Learned Societies Act of 1843 the Registrar of Friendly Societies had power to grant certificates of exemption from the payment of local rates on land and buildings belonging to any society instituted for purposes of science, literature, or the fine arts exclusively if the society was supported wholly or in part by voluntary contributions and did not make any dividend or bonus in money to any of its members. Some public libraries obtained certificates of exemption by having donations of books, etc., accepted as covering the requirement of voluntary contributions. These certificates were refused recognition by some rating authorities, but were accepted by others, but the decision against the Liverpool Public Libraries in 1905, although they had obtained a certificate of exemption from the Registrar, resulted in that official declining to entertain any application for such certificates from public libraries. Before the removal of the rate limitation it was a serious matter for many libraries to have to pay a substantial part of their restricted income back to their own local authority, but the unrestricted library rate has simplified the position. About one-fourth of the public libraries in the

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

kingdom are apparently totally exempt from rates and taxes. As regards income tax, any library may obtain exemption under the Income Tax Act of 1842, which lays down certain conditions to be complied with. Making a charge for lectures or providing a residence for the librarian, the existence of a book club, a charge for letting a hall, would be liable, in a contested case, to endanger the exemption.

Insurance of a library building and its contents is of course an absolutely essential item of library expenditure. Before taking out policies it is very desirable that a library authority should consult a reliable firm of insurance brokers. Such firms, being bound to no particular society, will give independent advice as to the best form of insurance in each case and as to the most suitable concern for the purposes in view. Buildings should be insured at their contract price, plus any increase in the cost of rebuilding which may result from a rise in the general price-level. Books should be insured at a fixed price per volume, with special rates for rare works or manuscripts considered irreplaceable. A sound valuation basis is 7s. 6d. per volume for reference library works, and 4s. a volume for those in the lending library, the figure being a replacement valuation and not the original purchase price. All-in policies may be effected at a premium of 1s. 6d. to 2s. per £100, or each item may be separately covered. It is most important to guard against under-insurance, especially of the stock, and the amount of the

PUBLIC LIBRARY FINANCE: EXPENDITURE

policy requires continually bringing up to date so that full replacement value is obtainable in case of need. If a library's books are worth, say, £20,000 now, having been insured ten years ago for half that sum, and no variation in the policy having been made, it is easy to visualize a possible claim being met with the following contention: "The value of the books undamaged by the recent fire is £8,000, and the sum due under your policy is therefore £2,000, and not £10,000 as you claim." This is rather a crude way of expressing the position, but I hope I have made it sufficiently plain that if full value for damage or loss is required, it must be seen to that the policy value is regularly increased with the growth of the library. Plate glass windows, etc., are best insured as a separate item, under a simple arrangement for immediate replacement of broken panes. In this way all the librarian need do in the case of breakage is to notify the insurance company concerned that immediate replacement is required. I have always found that the matter has received instant attention and replacement completed within twenty-four hours or so. It is a quicker method than by sending an order to a local firm to do the work, the account then being settled by the insurance company, and it is much less trouble, as a rule, to the librarian. Other matters which may require consideration for insurance purposes are loan exhibitions of books or pictures, which, of course, would not be covered by the ordinary library policy. Students of colleges

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

and universities may also be insured against falls or other accidents within the buildings, a very few shillings per annum covering hundreds of students. The insurance of the library staff under the Health and Unemployment Insurance Acts, etc., is a compulsory item in the expenditure.

CHAPTER IV

STAFF AND TRAINING

Although we like to refer to librarianship as a "profession," exception is sometimes taken to the use of that word in this connection, but no one can dispute the fact that librarianship belongs to that class of occupation requiring general culture, special training in theory, practical experience, and skill. "A librarian who aspires to the control of a large public library must have a sufficient knowledge of and sympathy with all branches of knowledge to be able to do justice to them in his selection of books, and to give students the guidance of which they stand in need. He also needs administrative ability; and it is a matter of common experience—increasingly recognized in all branches of life—that while such ability may be found in any grade, and with any antecedents, it is good general education which gives it the best chance to develop."¹

Experience depends for its value on its character, not its length, nor the size of the library. The small library, well organized, may often mean better experience than would service in a large library with restricted training. We have at last got beyond the time when committees are overwhelmed by that blessed word "experience," as a certain old lady is reported to be of "Mesopo-

¹ *Report of the Public Libraries Committee* [Cmd. 2868], p. 79.

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

tamia." Some appointments are still made on a candidate's own valuation of himself, and no real test is made, but we have arrived at a time when most people realize that long years in a badly managed library are not sufficient for to-day's needs.

It is essential that everyone who desires to earn a livelihood in library work should thoroughly understand the kind of work required, and the privileges and advantages it offers to the cultured man or woman. The general impression among many of those thinking of entering the profession is that the work is easy, genteel, and particularly suited for the aged and infirm, while many others imagine that a librarian is someone who sits behind a counter and hands out books, and an assistant librarian anyone who can paste labels in books and find a place on the shelves afterwards for those same books.

The best way of getting into the library world is to obtain a junior post immediately after matriculation. Once a position has been obtained, provided the individual has the true librarian's spirit and outlook, promotion in due course is certain, and security of tenure—a big thing nowadays—attaches to most positions, subject to good behaviour. At the earliest opportunity professional training—theoretical and practical—should be seriously followed up, the ultimate aim being the Diploma of the School of Librarianship or that of the Library Association. Full particulars of these diplomas

STAFF AND TRAINING

will be found in the syllabuses regularly issued, but the School of Librarianship course naturally requires attendance at lectures in the School, and can therefore only be of service to those who are able to live in or near London, or who can afford to spend two years in London without earning anything. The Library Association Diploma does not at present require attendance at lecture courses, and it is therefore convenient for people who are compelled to obtain their qualifications externally and who are unable to spend a definite period in London for the purpose. There is another important difference in that, while the School of Librarianship Diploma is open to any person successfully passing the examinations set for the purpose, the Library Association examinations are only open to persons who are actually employed in libraries. This does, of course, ensure that no person is without a substantial amount of practical training and experience at the moment of passing. There is something to be said for such a condition, but it does not encourage the holder of a degree to enter the library service. It appears to be inevitable for some arrangement to be made which will ensure opportunities for graduates with the School of Librarianship diploma qualification to enter the profession in one of the higher grades. As things are, all who have passed the diploma examination have to serve twelve months in a recognized library as a paid servant before the diploma is awarded.

The would-be librarian should first of all assure

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

himself that he possesses tact, integrity of character, patience, and courtesy. If to these he can add a good memory, accuracy, thoroughness, and common sense, he can be satisfied that he is at any rate mentally well qualified for the work he proposes to undertake, and before undergoing his training he must be convinced that he has a love for it, and that he knows he will never become a rich man on his earnings.

I am the proud possessor of a number of human documents sent to me, during 1933, by people now in the library profession, detailing their reasons for entering it, and the reproduction of some of these will, I am sure, do nothing but good. They represent, I am convinced, the position and feelings of many a budding librarian and will generally act as an encouragement to the suspicious and the doubtful. The first is from a man who spent eight years at Dulwich College and four years at St. John's, Oxford. "My difficulty was not to decide which of the many careers open to me should be chosen, but rather to discover one in which my temperamental deficiencies would do one least harm. I had been on the Classical side at school, and read Greek and Latin for the first part of my course at Oxford, and Ancient History and Philosophy for the second. I was interested most in Philosophy, but did not have sufficient faith in the merits of Classics as a school curriculum to justify my becoming a teacher, even apart from the fact that I was far too self-conscious and slow of thought ever to make

STAFF AND TRAINING

a good master. I disliked Commerce, probably because most of the business men with whom I was acquainted seemed to be shallow, aggressive, and unprincipled. I was fond of Science, particularly of Botany and Horticulture, but I could not adopt this career because I had no training in it. I was not sufficiently interested in politics and economics; not wideawake enough to stand a chance in the Civil Service examinations. I had rejected what seemed to be all the possible alternatives for one reason or another, when my tutor suggested Librarianship. At first I rather resented the suggestion, for like most people I had the idea that Librarianship was a quiet, rather monotonous sinecure, suitable for refined elderly men who could do nothing better, and it struck me that it would be rather cowardly, as well as disappointing, to give up the struggle so early and retire to the sheltered seclusion of the librarian's room. However, I made some inquiries, read some literature on the subject, and rapidly became quite enthusiastic with the idea. I found after more inquiries that unless I knew anyone of sufficient importance to pull strings for me, I could not enter any library even at a nominal salary, as I had no technical experience. My father, a solicitor's clerk, could not pay my fees at the School of Librarianship, and if I had not providently saved £60 out of my scholarship grant I should have been helpless. The points that attracted me to Librarianship were, first, that I should still be closely in contact with learning and with all

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

that seemed to me of value in life; second, that I should be able to do any amount of useful work in a quiet way, suitable to my rather retiring nature, and lastly that I should always have opportunities to come out into the world, so to speak, if ever I succeeded in overcoming my self-consciousness."

This is also from a man: "On leaving school at the age of sixteen years I obtained a position as temporary junior clerk at the town hall. When this came to a finish I was transferred, much against my will, into the libraries department, I then considering this a mere girl's job. However, I had no option. This was six years ago, and in that time I have learned that a profession which requires personality, tact, originality, initiative, and almost a genius for the work is no mere girl's job. In the first place I looked upon it as a means to an end—a way of earning a living, an easy way perhaps. But now, having developed a great liking for the profession, I can appreciate that for a man to be permitted to take upon himself the responsibility of instructing the general public in an art which saw its beginning when man first made his appearance, and will surely last until he has made his last bow, is a privilege indeed."

The third breathes the real spirit of librarianship: "I confess that the reason I am in this profession is because when I left school the first chance of a job I had was in a library—and I took it. There is more in it than that. I remember when only five years old I was told I couldn't join the Public Library

STAFF AND TRAINING

till I was seven. This disappointed me—but exactly five days after I was seven I remember joining, since when I have been a constant user. Thus I may safely say that libraries are attractive to me. I am glad to be surrounded by the wisdom of the ages, to be able to imbibe the joys of pure literature, to be able to revitalize the characters buried in words and the scenes of history. I am glad to be near those enlightened men and women who come to the shrines called libraries. Finally, I am gratified by the knowledge that in helping in the task of making knowledge available I am helping others, and in helping to preserve books I am doing a useful job, for, without books or their equivalent, knowledge would collapse and man's progress be seriously impeded."

Another writer, quite well known in the library world, states his reasons for entering the library profession were rather indefinite, "but, having certain literary pretensions, I considered a library would be more agreeable than an office or a school. I have found in my experience of libraries that the work offers many advantages to the studious or literary-minded person, though sometimes one wonders if the monotony of the actual routine does not more than counterbalance the opportunities of leisure and literature. But since it is a profession, which, once adopted, can never be changed, one ceases to have any real reasons for having chosen it, but is more concerned with justifying the choice."

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

As a last example from my various correspondents I quote the following as typical of many: "Having taken the Senior Oxford School Certificate I was waiting for anything which might turn up, when an application came to the school for a youth to fill a vacancy in a college library. I half-heartedly applied for the position, with two others, and to my surprise (and dismay) I was appointed. I expected to be surrounded with books, and to issue them to borrowers and to replace them when returned. I was not entirely disappointed, but there appeared a thousand and one other tasks to be accomplished. I did *not* expect to spend hours dusting the most filthy books imaginable, nor to carry huge piles of books when a library had to be moved, and on other occasions. Furthermore, I did *not* expect to be 'earning' 25s. per week at the end of three years, and without a prospect of any increase. I had started at £1 a week. However, I enjoy my work and even dusting becomes acceptable as a change from daily routine. I realize that librarianship would be extremely dull if it did merely consist of doling out books to borrowers, and I am more than pleased that I have entered the profession, and my only regret is that the salary (if it can be called such) is totally inadequate, and not even enough to keep a junior library assistant. Perhaps my time will come, or *perhaps* the Library Association will organize a Trade Union for Underpaid Librarians."

I have given these statements at some length, and in the actual words of my correspondents,

STAFF AND TRAINING

deliberately, because they seem to me to deal conscientiously with most of the conflicting ideas which enter the minds of those contemplating entering the service of libraries. The frank opinions expressed as the result of their experience should be an adequate answer to many problems which suggest themselves.

The would-be librarian needs first of all to have reached a high standard of education, sufficient to enable him to enter for any professional examination and to obtain the highest paper qualifications possible. The minimum standard accepted for the diplomas is matriculation. Whether one enters the library world immediately after and works for the various certificates concurrently, or goes for a higher degree before taking a post, technical training is essential for the person who wants to qualify for the highest positions. At the moment the only continuous course of training, theoretical and practical, is that provided by the School of Librarianship, University College. Full details may be obtained from the Director of the School, and there is neither space nor necessity for them to be given here. If it is asked, "Why is this training necessary?" if practical experience in a library has such a vital influence on one's chances, the answer is that the assistant in a library is too often compelled to conform to the needs of the library in which he is employed, while the student is taught cataloguing, classification, and other subjects not because he will thereby be able to catalogue and classify books,

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

and do certain routine tasks, but because he can only gain full and definite understanding of certain fundamental elements in library activity in that way. The School of Librarianship, and similar institutions in other countries, are frequently found fault with because the training is too theoretical, practical details are not appreciated it is said, and the students lack experience. I have already urged the desirability of any person undertaking to equip himself for library work, to get practical experience as a means of gaining greater insight into a librarian's life and work. But practice—the doing of things—is merely mechanical performance without knowledge of theory—why things are done and in a particular way. Theory without the practical experience is “knowledge untested by actuality.” The best combination of both is desired. “Theory and practice,” it has been truly said, “are the alphabet of effective work in a library as elsewhere.”

While I am not prepared to admit that the practical side of the work is in any way overlooked at the School of Librarianship (a great deal has to be done during the training), I think it is desirable that the possibility of strengthening that aspect of the course should be given serious consideration before long. I have known people who could quote, verbatim, passages from text-books telling the best way to paste a label in or on a book, but who have been absolutely unable to begin the task until shown by somebody else how it is done. Others have told me they did not want to bother to learn about such

STAFF AND TRAINING

routine tasks because "I shall have an assistant to do work of that kind." My reply has always been, "How can you tell whether the routine in your library is efficiently done, or how can you instruct anyone how to do it, unless you yourself know the right way?" Many people who are candidates for the profession are unfitted by lack of education or lack of ability to acquire it, as well as by lack of cultivation, by possessing a bad temper, by want of tact, by dislike of being told to do things, or even by objection to work at all. I think it can be claimed that such a training as that given at the School of Librarianship is most important in one direction—the absolutely unfit are generally discovered at an early stage and suitable action taken. Suitable, that is, for the candidate and the profession—the latter because it is usually saved from having another "dud," and the candidate because he is prevented from wasting his time in trying to accomplish the impossible. But not only must the unfit be excluded, the *fit* person must be attracted to the profession through the training. That is to say it must be so complete, so thorough, and so practical that the possessor of a diploma may be looked upon as one whose qualifications dare not be disputed. There is no question that the School of Librarianship has provided some really first-class people in recent years, people that is who are endowed with all the mental and social qualifications desirable in a librarian, in addition to being tested and proved in the examinations. Women form a large propor-

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

tion of these, and the question again suggests itself, "Is the library profession being over-feminized?" as in America.

In the 1907 edition of Brown's *Manual* the author wrote that unless the salaries of assistants in libraries were substantially raised, the authorities would be *compelled to employ women*, and Brown himself was one of the first librarians to have a staff, the majority of whom were women. As I have stated in a previous chapter, nothing but good results may be expected from competent women, appointed because they have superior qualifications to the men competing, but it is most essential that wage questions shall not be the determining factors. It is ominous that all the lowest places in the salary tables are occupied by women librarians, and it is the bounden duty of women librarians to insist on adequate payment for the work they do. Against this the women say that if they insist on equal pay with men the latter are usually preferred, other things being equal. Even supposing educational and technical qualifications are alike, there are a number of perfectly valid reasons used against women in an attempt to justify lower salaries. The greater percentage of absences through illness among women in employment than among men, the inability of women to do a year's strenuous work without breaking down, the liability of women to err in moments of emergency, their inability to maintain discipline, especially in a mixed staff, are the main deficiencies charged against them. Statistics available undoubtedly confirm these

STAFF AND TRAINING

charges up to a point, particularly those relating to health matters, and it is difficult to see how, in the very nature of things, they can be changed very much. On the other hand it may be justly claimed that women possess usually some compensating qualifications which tend to level matters up. Apart from questions of personality which frequently have a tremendous influence on a selection committee mainly of males, the mere fact that women know they have to prove themselves against men makes them eager to give of their best. In tasks requiring concentration of mind and effort women are, in my opinion, generally more reliable than many males, and they have usually just that little bit more of patience and carefulness which are needed to reduce errors to a minimum, but their best work comes when they can depend upon the guidance and control of a man. They do not take so kindly to the orders of one of their own sex. In fact it is this question of control which is woman's weakness, especially when there is a mixed staff to deal with. Women lack the ability to act wisely and promptly in moments of emergency. I am speaking in general terms. There are exceptions, of course, and usually brilliant exceptions. Some of the arguments used by librarians against the employment of women in libraries are absurd. One librarian of a very large library urged that working men will, in general, not ask questions of women assistants and sometimes even hesitate to enter a library where all the staff are women; he claims that a man interested in

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

carpentry, plumbing, or tinsmithing desiring to use a collection of books wants to consult someone acquainted with his subject, and that women are not commonly carpenters or plumbers. This is resented as a reflection on women librarians, and does not accord with the general experience. It might as well be argued that a woman wanting advice as to literature on dressmaking or nursing would turn back from a library containing only male staff. Men have got to realize that the competition of women as librarians is a serious one, and that it is necessary for men to meet it by perfecting themselves and not by belittling the value of women's services. Both men and women will do better for themselves and the cause if they will appreciate the fact that room has to be found equally in the library field for both sexes, and that co-operation is needed to secure justice all round and a continual raising of the prestige of the profession.

The duties of a chief librarian are to carry out the policy of his committee. He is the authority on the needs of the readers, he knows the resources of the library, and the demands made upon them. The method of classification to be used, cataloguing systems to be introduced, the compiling of records and statistics, the arrangement of staff hours, committee work, accounts and book lists, order among readers, aiding them in research, and being accessible to them at all reasonable hours—all these things and many others are his responsibility. He has to keep his ideals high, to make the library a vital

STAFF AND TRAINING

force in the community, while at the same time avoiding those physically impossible tasks which advertise the librarian and incidentally kill his staff. Of course, the actual clerical and manual work involved in a librarian's responsibility is done mainly by his subordinates, but the administration of a large public institution is no mean burden if thoroughly and efficiently carried out. I have for a long time been convinced that in the largest libraries, whether municipal or not, the administration is now of such bigness and importance that it is physically impossible for one person to devote his energies to the technical side to any extent, and it is more than ever necessary that there should be a sub-librarian with the highest possible qualifications to be responsible for the cataloguing, classification, and bibliographical work which nowadays reaches to vast proportions. There is no need to recapitulate here the routine tasks shared by other members of the staff, but I do want to emphasize the importance of the children's department of the public library and the desirability of having a really competent assistant in charge of it. The days when the newest junior was considered a fit person to bear this responsibility are almost forgotten, but even now there are instances where the tact and friendly counsel so much needed are conspicuously absent. Women undoubtedly can lay claim to special qualifications for this work. Not *all* women, but most of them, and the services of the best woman senior will not be wasted in the long run if placed

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

,at the disposal of the "adult readers of to-morrow."

The most important of the adult departments is the reference library, and the best informed and most experienced member of the staff can never be too good for a reference library worthy of the name. Every piece of research done for readers by him must mean a little more knowledge imbibed, and he gradually becomes saturated with the information on his shelves. Catalogues and mechanical aids to any amount may exist, but they can never replace that intimate knowledge and personal guidance provided by the human element in the library's equipment.

CHAPTER V

HOURS OF WORK AND HOLIDAYS

Conditions of work in public libraries have fortunately vastly improved since my junior days, when I had to work from 8.45 a.m. to 9 p.m. on five days a week, with two hours for lunch and one hour for tea, and one day off each week. In return I was paid the munificent "salary" of £13 a year. In comparison the recommendations of the Library Association, as given in the *Record* for April 1934, make library work seem almost a life of ease, but the suggestions are sound and logical. Hours of work should not exceed thirty-eight a week, and no time-sheet should indicate a break of more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours at lunch-time and $1\frac{1}{4}$ hours for tea. The very prevalent arrangement whereby an assistant goes off at 1 p.m., returning at 5 p.m., and having to consume two meals within the period is bad enough when the individual lives near by, but it is an absolute hardship in the case of the person whose home is a train journey away, and who in bad weather has either to haunt the library or walk the streets all the time. Stretches of duty of more than four hours should also be avoided. If libraries were factories continuous duty of five to six hours would not be allowed under the law, and no employer can expect the best work in such circum-

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

stances. In regard to overtime the Library Association suggests that it should be discouraged, but when worked should be compensated by time off or payment and whenever possible the time off should be that desired by the assistant. Personally I am of the opinion that the time-off arrangement is the better for both parties. Junior assistants we know highly appreciate an extra shilling or two occasionally, but it is not a good thing for any person to do excessive hours of duty, even occasionally. It must mean some degree of fatigue which can only be properly counteracted by a longer period of rest and recreation. Frequent turns should not be allowed. The remedy is an addition to the staff. I would emphasize here that thirty-eight hours of duty in a week should mean thirty-eight hours, and measures taken against the offenders who are regularly five minutes late from lunch or who sign on at 9.30 and then spend the next ten minutes in facial reconstruction by means of paint and powder. It is an easy calculation as to the amount of time lost to the work in a library with a large staff and with only one or two unpunctual members. In other words a reasonable working week such as is represented by thirty-eight hours, should be thirty-eight hours' *work* and not simply thirty-eight hours within the building. Sunday duty should not be enforced upon any assistant unless it was distinctly understood on appointment that such would be expected. Compensation for this duty should be either double pay or double time off

HOURS OF WORK AND HOLIDAYS

duty, with emphasis on the latter. No member of the staff ought to work seven days a week, and there should be one day in seven free from duty. As regards holidays the Association's recommendations are a minimum of twelve working days a year for the graded staff under twenty-one years of age; eighteen working days for those over twenty-one years of age and with a salary up to £350; twenty-one working days for officers receiving over £350; and twenty-four working days for chief librarians. In all cases the usual general holidays are in addition. Provision should be made for those unfortunate folk who change appointments just before their annual leave is due. It is not right that appointment to a better post in another library in the spring should entail the loss of the annual holiday earned elsewhere. No person can be expected to work for two years without a holiday and be at concert pitch all the time. The weekly half-holiday should be given in all cases, and it should begin not later than 1 p.m. Evenings off also should be arranged to begin from 5 p.m. and not as late as 6 p.m. The later hour makes all the difference to anyone having perhaps an hour's journey home and a meal to get. Arrangement of these matters in such a way as to give the fullest benefit to those participating is bound to encourage the staff to give compensating service. Absence through illness should not be a reason for reducing the income of any member of the staff, just at the time when it is most needed. Medical certificates of soundness

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

in health and constitution should be required in all cases at the taking up of an appointment, and only after a long period of absence should there be any reduction of pay. It is usual in large concerns to pay full salary for the first six months' continuous absence and half-pay for the next six months, but naturally special consideration would be given to any such cases. It is as well to point out here that absence through illness means the illness of the member of the staff and not his parents. No public library can legitimately use the ratepayers' money to provide nursing for a relative of someone whom they employ. What I have in mind is the tendency for women members of the staff to stay at home because "mother (or father) is ill and I have to look after her." These cases, to which every consideration must be given in an emergency, are not entitled to receive payment during absence. A further recommendation of the Library Association concerns unpaid pupil assistants, and is to the effect that they should not be allowed to work in rate-supported libraries, unless they are librarians from other parts resident here for a limited period only. It is satisfactory to have a definite expression of opinion from the Association on this matter. The pupil assistant idea has frequently been used as a method of getting work done at a cheap rate, and that aspect of the question usually obscured the training side. It was generally difficult to satisfy both sides, each having a rather different object in view. Temporary workers should not be

HOURS OF WORK AND HOLIDAYS

paid at lower rates than permanent employees. It is usually desirable to pay more when the period is a definitely limited one.

The grading of the staff for purposes of salary is satisfactory in that each member of the staff knows how he stands, but it should be clearly understood that promotion from one grade to another is not necessarily determined according to length of service. It is clear that if special knowledge of a technical or literary subject is of value in a department, or personality most required in another, the best interests of the community are served if the promotion is given to that assistant possessing in a greater degree than others the particular qualification.

Members of the staff should be encouraged to join the Library Association and to take every opportunity of visiting other libraries and making the acquaintance of members of other library staffs. The mutual discussion of problems met in their work is bound to be helpful. These visits of observation not only enable one to visualize current practice, but, added to contact with others, prevent one falling into a rut, minimize the danger of fixed habits, and provide that continuous knowledge of what is being done which is so vital to those who wish to qualify quickly for substantial positions in the profession. The person who is possessed of initiative, originality, and an inquiring spirit will also make a habit of regularly reading the technical library journals, not only for statistics of issues and

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

appointments, but to stimulate his own thoughts in regard to the things which matter most. Attendance at conferences and meetings should be made possible. Not that the papers read and addresses given are themselves always inspiring, apart from the fact that they can usually be found in cold print afterwards, but when new suggestions are put before a gathering of members the most valuable discussions are those which take place afterwards among groups of three or four at the tea-table or in the hotel lounge or on a seat in the public gardens. That is the real purpose surely of annual conferences—the unloading of the soul's burdens to sympathetic ears. The Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux (A.S.L.I.B.) caters particularly for non-municipal librarians and those engaged in the intelligence departments and libraries of scientific institutions and industrial and commercial undertakings. Its functions are quite dissimilar to those of the Library Association. It is an association of information-users and it is not so much concerned with the formation and administration of libraries great and small as with the dissemination of knowledge of the sources of information on scientific and commercial matters and the methods of registering and preserving such information for practical purposes. A perusal of the proceedings of the A.S.L.I.B. annual conferences will show the special character of the members' interests.

CHAPTER VI

LIBRARY BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT

A casual survey of existing public library buildings in this country promptly leads to the conclusion that it would not be altogether a bad thing if many of them could be swallowed up in a single night and provide an opportunity to put in their places structures which would be suitable for their purpose. There is no doubt that many of these edifices were planned by architects who had little idea as to what a library should be and who were obsessed with the notion that an imposing exterior was what was mainly required, something which would cause the passer-by to piously look up and exclaim, "Who was the architect of this striking building?" Much of the fault from the user's point of view is due to the fact that the majority of the earlier public libraries were planned and erected before the appointment of the librarian, and little or none of the necessary professional advice so essential if an institution is to fit its purpose was available. It is now generally realized that the librarian should decide the ground-plan of the library building and that the architect's job is to develop it, to simplify it, and to see that it does not suffer from lack of grace and dignity. It is an axiom of good library planning that the interior accommodation should be decided upon

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

first of all, and the locations of rooms and departments determined before the exterior is considered. The library is surely intended to serve special purposes and should be designed accordingly, leaving it to the architect to rectify inconsistencies and so relate one part to another that the accepted idea functions properly, and then to clothe it with a suitable shell best fitted to bring results desired from the internal arrangements. First of all it is necessary to see that as far as possible the site chosen is readily accessible to the majority of the population, that it is not in a specially noisy street, not hemmed in by factories or workshops, that natural lighting is obtainable from all sides, and that extension of the building is possible in future without seriously affecting the above-mentioned prerequisites of a site. Absolute isolation, so desirable in the case of a university library, is rarely obtainable for a public library, or, if so, only at the expense of other amenities. The quiet which would result from placing a library building in an open field on the outskirts of a town would seriously affect the question of accessibility. The influence of a library building rarely extends more than a mile from its location, and a non-central position is bound to seriously affect the number of users of the library. On the other hand an island site in a central position is almost certain to mean a continuous volume of traffic on all sides, making serious reference work impossible. The nature of the proposed library (public, university, scientific insti-

LIBRARY BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT

tution, large or small) is a first consideration, and every library building must be planned especially to fit the kind of work to be done and the community to be served. The library may be one in which the seating accommodation required will be more or less stable, and the storage space for books will be the most pressing problem to provide for, as in a university library, where discarding is necessarily on a limited scale and a continuously growing stock of books is to be looked for. The public library must visualize a continually increasing number of readers as the population increases, a reference library growing less quickly but still permanently, and a lending library sufficient to provide at least three volumes per registered borrower but having a limit brought about by frequent discarding and the establishment of branch libraries, which, however, have no effect on the requirements of the reference library. Even the character of the books to be housed has an appreciable effect on the internal planning and shelving. A library consisting mainly of scientific or technical works will require deeper shelving than fiction or *belles-lettres*. An architectural or fine arts library will demand even more generous provision in measurements of shelving, and a library mainly of newspapers will, of course, eat up a tremendous amount of space. So far as public libraries are concerned it is possible to determine approximately the number of borrowers likely and their probable annual increase, and therefore the number of volumes

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

required at the beginning, the number which should be added to meet the increased demand, modified by the number likely to be discarded or requiring replacement, and further modified by the fact that at least one-fourth of the books will usually be circulating in readers' homes. Out-of-date and superseded works have no justification in a lending library or for that matter in the public reference library, but in a university library where the historical side of every subject requires the fullest representation of illustrative documents and literature of all ages the storage space for books is liable to be outgrown much sooner than its accommodation for readers, as students come and go, their numbers increasing but slowly.

It is essential that the departments most used in municipal public libraries should be located as near the entrance as possible so that traffic is reduced to a minimum. This will naturally mean that in a one-floor building the Reading and News Room and the Lending Library occupy positions near the main entrance, although when there is a separate Juvenile department it will be better to locate that between the Lending Library and the street, so as to prevent children having access to adult departments, and also to provide the maximum of natural lighting in the room in which they read. The Reference Library requires a well-lighted position and also the minimum of noise, and these conditions will generally be obtainable at the back of the building. Fig. 1 shows a well-planned library

LIBRARY BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT

on one floor, and Figs. 2 and 3 represent an excellent arrangement for a two-floor building as exemplified in the Hendon Public Library, one of the most recently constructed in the London area. If a Lecture Hall is to be provided it will fit in well behind the Lending Library, but it is advisable to have an entrance to it direct from the street to avoid a stream of traffic through the corridors of the library at lecture times. Where other buildings exist on each side of a site necessitating the construction of the library close up to them an endeavour should be made to leave a space of from 4 feet to 6 feet wide to provide passageway to the Lecture Hall and also to gain additional natural lighting to the reading rooms. It is almost impossible to give any exact basic figures as to the size of the rooms to be provided. Local circumstances differ enormously. The greater the congestion of the population the more people there will be within easy distance of the library; the fewer the population per acre the smaller the percentage who will regularly read in the library. This is, of course, a very broad generalization. A working basis, from analogy, is that in a Reading Room 1,000 square feet is the minimum accommodation necessary for every 20,000 population, so that a population of 40,000 would require 2,000 square feet. That means a room 50 feet by 40 feet capable of accommodating about 130 readers at stands and tables, allowing rather more than 15 square feet per person present, including space for gang-

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

ways and furniture. An open access reference library for the same population would require seating accommodation for about thirty readers, but to be comfortable plans should provide a room calculated to give 30 square feet per seat, including again gangways, tables, shelving, and other furniture. This means roughly 1,000 square feet, or a room 40 feet by 25 feet. Of course, if a very considerable number of books is to be available with open access in this department greater provision must be made, and this calculation that the number of readers in the Reference Library will only be about one-quarter the number using the Reading Room can only be taken as a very rough guide in working out plans. I am always being asked how big a room shall we want in each case and I submit these figures as the result of my inquiries and personal visits to other libraries. They are something to go upon, but little more. I am afraid there are few public reference libraries which afford 30 square feet per reader, but it is not too generous an allotment if readers doing real research are to be encouraged. The Lending Library must be expected to increase both its stock and the number of its users as time goes on. If the first does not happen probably the second will not either. Normally about 12 per cent of the population will register as borrowers and a minimum of three volumes per borrower should be allowed for. From 40,000 population, therefore, one may expect approximately 5,000 borrowers, requiring a stock of at least 15,000 volumes. In

LIBRARY BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT

an open access library, making full provision for adequate gangways, desks, etc., with bookcases not more than 7 feet 6 inches high, and allowing 1 square foot for every 15 volumes shelved will require 1,000 square feet for the department, say a room 40 feet by 25 feet, but this makes but little allowance for future growth.

Reference should be made to Mr. Berwick Sayers' *Children's Libraries* for full details of the equipment and arrangement of the Juvenile department if one is to be provided as a separate section. It will be sufficient to say here that a minimum of 600 square feet should be allowed as the Reading Room for a town of the size in mind and about 300 square feet for the Lending department. Personally I prefer the two sections to be separated by a glazed partition so that the traffic and talking necessary in the Lending department will not be so disturbing in the Reading Room.

A Lecture Hall is nowadays an essential department of any public library, unless the site is too small to allow of its inclusion without trespassing on the space demanded as a minimum by the other departments already enumerated. A room of 1,000 square feet will provide accommodation for about two hundred people, allowing 5 square feet for each seat. This room can very well be given the darkest part of the building, as it is rarely required for use except when artificial lighting would in any case be necessary. It is important to remember that both the Juvenile department and the Lecture

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

Hall may be inadvisable where the central library is located in what is mainly a business centre. In such cases it is better to make provision for them in branch libraries where the resident population is mainly concentrated, but if no branch library exists to begin with provision may be made in the central building and transferred later to a branch when such is erected. The accommodation at the central could then be utilized for increasing book storage and reading facilities in the other departments.

The smallest possible number of permanent partitions should be planned, and glazed ones are better than solid ones of brick, allowing as they do for better supervision and the penetration of light. Convenience of arrangement should never be sacrificed for architectural effect, mouldings should be few and windows as large as possible. Every possible aid which can be provided by fireproof materials should be introduced into the structure. Concrete floors, iron roofings, and metal-framed windows are all of assistance in this connection. Whenever a boiler room has to be provided for heating purposes it should be placed in the basement, farthest away from any stock of books. If it must be placed next to or underneath any department, that department should be the General Reading Room and not the Reference Library or the Lending Library. In very large stack rooms it will be found advisable that there should be a series of rooms divided by fireproof walls, and a

LIBRARY BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT

strong room should always be available for the storage of important documents and works of great intrinsic value.

Floorings should be as noiseless as possible, particularly in reference libraries and rooms where serious study and research are usual. There is nothing better than Expanco, which is compressed cork supplied in tiles a foot square. This can be laid directly on the concrete, and is noiseless, warm, extremely durable, and hygienic. Regularly cleaned with one of the usual floor polishes it is also dustless, an important consideration in any library. Should any part show signs of wear, a new tile or so will put matters right without having to have the whole floor re-laid as when linoleum is used.

Rubber floorings, which may also be laid in squares, have many things in their favour—they are fairly silent, easily cleaned, available in many colourings, durable, and, like Expanco, can be laid directly on the concrete, but every little irregularity or undulation in the surface of the concrete soon shows through the rubber, which is liable to wear unevenly. Rubber and linoleum floorings in the piece, cork carpets, and similar materials, are, of course, all suitable, but replacement of the whole is necessary in case of defects.

In newspaper and general reading rooms of public libraries it will usually be found advisable to consider first of all durability, and to install wood block floorings in these much-used departments.

The rooms of the librarian and staff will be more

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

hygienic and just as comfortable with Expanco floorings and a rug than with carpets, which, soft and pleasing as they may be to walk upon, are costly, and can soon become the home of myriads of germs, however frequently they may be vacuum-cleaned.

All corridors and communicating passages should be as short, straight, and direct as possible, while staircases should be straight and not circular. There should not be more than 12 feet between each landing, when there is more than one floor, and the stairs should have easy rises at each step. They should never be made too wide, and the space allowed for stairs and corridors should be sufficient for their purposes but without the waste of valuable floor space.

CHAPTER VII

VENTILATION, HEATING, AND LIGHTING

VENTILATION

One of the most difficult problems to deal with in the organization of a library is that of ventilation, and probably no system will be really satisfactory to readers as a whole short of having each reading room in two divisions, one labelled "Fresh-air reading room" and the other "Stuffy reading enclosure." It is quite certain that satisfactory ventilation cannot possibly exist in libraries where only windows are to be depended upon to do what is required both winter and summer. Various ventilating systems and mechanical appliances have been installed in newer buildings, where open windows are not possible on account of the noise from outside, and in certain buildings in warm climates where dust storms are not unusual. In all cases where closed windows are a necessity ventilation will be dependent upon the admittance of fresh air and the extraction of contaminated air by mechanical contrivances. In all other instances windows and doors, with electric fans to extract the foul air, ventilating tubes and shafts, should be common features in all reading rooms, but no arrangements for ventilation can be really satisfactory unless they are subject to constant regulation.

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

It is perfectly obvious that the same setting of windows which is efficient in a room containing six readers cannot possibly be correct for the same room with sixty readers. Frequently the odour which will literally "smack your face" on entering a crowded reading room is not the result of faulty construction but of lack of attention. There can be no hard-and-fast rule suitable for every case, but instructions to the architect should emphasize the necessity of providing means of ventilation adaptable to fit every variation of climate and any number of readers.

HEATING

The heating of libraries is a problem of the greatest importance, and all kinds of methods have been experimented with in the past in the shape of hot-water pipes, hot-air furnaces, and stoves and grates of the opened or closed variety. The latter are quite unsuitable for large rooms and the element of danger from open fires together with the dust and smoke nuisance preclude consideration of them as a heating medium. The most generally used system is that of heating by hot-water radiators, the fuel used being coke, coal, or oil. Choice has to be made between a high-pressure or low-pressure system. The advantage of the former is that, the boiler being on the turbine principle, and the pipes having direct contact with the fuel, temperature is raised very quickly and the fires can be allowed to go out at night. There are,

VENTILATION, HEATING, AND LIGHTING

however, many disadvantages. It is not economical in the consumption of fuel; the feeding pipes being only half-inch in diameter render them liable to freezing when the fire is out and consequently to bursts; while the great heat generated in the boiler-room renders the outbreak of fire more likely than with the low-pressure system. By this method the fuel burns under the boiler and heats the water in the same way as boiling a kettle. The heated water circulates to the top of the building to be warmed, and then returns to the boiler to be re-heated. The one great disadvantage of this system, as compared with the high-pressure method, is that it generally takes a whole day for a large building to be comfortably warmed, but, once it becomes so, the fire in the boiler can be kept going throughout the winter and regulated according to need. Risk of freezing is small as the water is never allowed to cool and much less fuel is burned, as once the water is hot a small fire keeps it so. More recently oil-burning boilers have been installed in several libraries and in many cases appear to be quite satisfactory, while in other instances my inquiries have produced evidence that there is a liability for the smell of oil to be noticeable when the burners are turned out, and also for the latter to make an unpleasant roaring when at full blast. There is no question that heat can be quickly produced and without dust and ash as when coke or coal is used, while it is claimed that it is a cheaper fuel than either of the latter. On the other hand there is no stability

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

in the price of fuel oil, and although it is cheap enough at the moment there are so many possibilities of constantly varying prices and even, later on perhaps, difficulty in supply, that serious consideration should be given to every aspect of the problem before coming to a decision. It cannot be denied that the storage on library premises of large quantities of oil fuel is an added fire danger. There is no need to discuss steam and hot-air furnaces here. They are not usual except in institutions of the very largest size, such as the British Museum. Care should be taken to see that the hot-water radiators are properly apportioned throughout the building; that each may be shut off when not required; that space is left between pipes and walls to allow any accumulation of dirt to be easily removed, and that direct contact of the pipes with wooden shelving or furniture is avoided. In all the systems so far described a large amount of space is required for the boiler room and also for storage of fuel, and particular care should be taken to see that there is direct access from outside to the boiler rooms so that neither fuel nor ashes have to be carried into any part of the building.

So far as the comparative advantages of oil and coke fuel are concerned, the experience of the Glasgow libraries as given at the Library Association conference at Harrogate is decidedly in favour of oil, the advantages claimed being economy of storage space; quicker heating; more even temperature;

VENTILATION, HEATING, AND LIGHTING

cleanliness; absence of refuse; no stoking required; and economy in aggregate cost.¹ In a footnote Mr. Pitt is careful to point out that since the paper was presented "prices have risen steadily, and are always liable to fluctuation." This is a point I have already stressed above.

The new Manchester library is heated by hot water, the boilers being dependent on electricity for fuel. Special arrangements have been made for the supply of current, and the system is an interesting innovation which will be closely watched by all concerned with library comfort and economy.

This is an age of electricity and although many attempts have been made to devise a system of heating by electricity suitable for public buildings it is only quite recently that the invention of tubular electric heaters has brought the desired results. The "Unity" system of electric heating has been introduced into libraries and other large buildings of all kinds with very satisfactory results, and there is no question that, wherever the cost of current for heating is not more than one penny per unit, it is undoubtedly more economical and certainly more efficient. The pipes or tubes containing the heating element are about 2 inches in diameter, and the element itself, which is unbreakable, is laced on a mica frame in such a way as to render contact with the tube impossible. As a further safeguard, the tubes have an asbestos lining through-

¹ *Library Buildings: their Heating, Lighting, and Decoration*, 1934-Library Association.

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

out. They are best placed at the bottom of the skirting, but if desired may be arranged in squares or ovals, or almost any design, and the exterior can be coloured to match any furniture or equipment or to fit any desired colour scheme. It is claimed that such a system, while possessing all the advantages of any other method of central heating, has merits which make it superior to anything yet introduced. No boiler house or fuel space are required. There is no smoke and therefore ugly chimneys are eliminated and the smoke problem relieved. Fire risks are reduced and the outfit is practically indestructible, thus reducing maintenance costs to a minimum. There being no water or other liquid in the system, damage from leaks and freezing is impossible. There are no fumes, soot, or dirt, and no ash to be removed. The whole system can reach full heat in twenty minutes, and can be thermostatically controlled, ensuring the desired temperature in any department. Any one room can be heated independently of another, in exactly the same way as electric light. Extensions can be made at any time to any length, in just the same way as electric light is done, by the fixing of further sections of tubing, without affecting the operation of the existing part of a scheme. No labour is required for operating the system, which is controlled by switches just as the electric light is. It is less costly to install in old or new buildings, owing to the fact that far less cutting away is required. The one serious fact against its

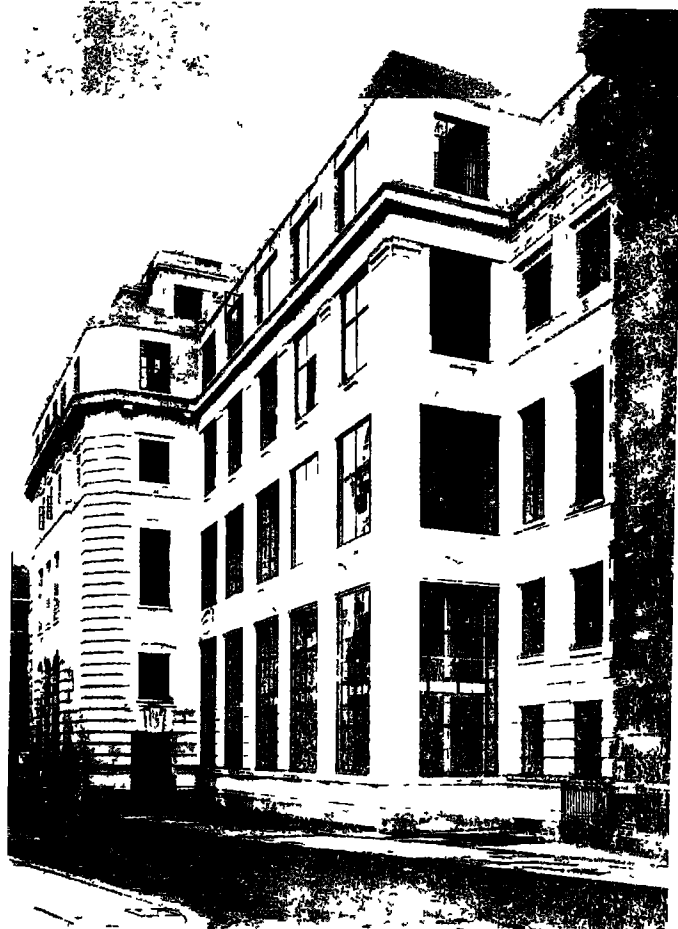


FIG 4—Exterior of the new Library of the London School of Economics, with its nearly “all-glass” front

VENTILATION, HEATING, AND LIGHTING

general adoption is the high price of electric current in many places, but with the development of the plans of the Central Electricity Board there is no doubt uniformity of charges will result. Those districts which are getting heating current for much less than one penny a unit will benefit considerably from an electrical heating system such as I have described. Everyone interested in this problem of heating libraries should read Mr. Pitt's paper in the volume just referred to.

LIGHTING

As already hinted the architect and the librarian have usually been at variance on the question of natural lighting in libraries, and while the former has mainly had in view appearance, the librarian has sighed, often in vain, for a sufficiency of window space to provide the maximum amount of daylight. A library is usually erected for particular purposes, and one of the chief of these is reading. Architectural beauty, with insufficient daylight, does not assist the functioning of the library, and I have more than once felt absolutely overwhelmed in coming face to face with a series of port-holes in a stone enclosure, hiding a reading room within. The "all-glass front" may not be all glass, but it is intended to describe the shell of a building which has its structural walls of the minimum capacity required to support the building and the rest of the space filled with windows, extending from 4 feet from the floor right up to the ceiling (Fig. 4).

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

In this way you are not only providing the maximum light for reading, but you are reducing the cost of electric current for lighting to a minimum, a very important factor in maintenance charges. A room with natural lighting possible on one side only can, on this basis, be satisfactorily lighted to a width half as much again as its height. That is to say, a room 14 feet high can be 21 feet wide and in normal conditions be adequately lighted in daytime at the extreme side. Casement windows, with pivot in centre, are as satisfactory a kind as may be desired for all usual purposes. As many panes as possible should be made to open so that ventilation may be adequate. Stained glass should never be used in reading rooms unless the maximum lighting required is available from other windows. A certain public library in Scotland, with all stained-glass windows to its main reading room, giving the dim, religious light of a cathedral inside, is a permanent memorial of the influence of the architect in the wrong direction.

A much discussed matter is the suitability of skylights and top lighting for libraries, and, despite all that is argued in the volume before-mentioned to the effect that any disadvantages from top lighting are the results of faulty construction and could be avoided, my own experience of buildings new and old tells me that it is extremely difficult to avoid leaks and shrinking in this climate of ours, while in warmer countries all authorities agree that such forms of lighting are unsuitable. The lights

VENTILATION, HEATING, AND LIGHTING

are liable to be shattered by hail showers, in cold weather they add considerably to the cost of heating, and in summer, by attracting the sun's rays, cause libraries to become unpleasantly warm. Apart from these objections is the very serious one that if a room is dependent on top lighting extension of the building upwards is made impracticable. From the point of view of lighting alone, top lighting cannot be excelled; an equable, shadowless light is given to the whole room, and for picture-galleries and museums it is ideal. As a forlorn hope it could be advocated for reading rooms, but not until all other possibilities had proved failures. In libraries closely surrounded by other and high buildings additional natural lighting may be obtained by wells through the centre of the building, round which the departments would be constructed, but it must be remembered that the space thus taken up may one day be of inestimable value for additional reading accommodation, and only if sufficient light is absolutely unobtainable by other means, or if space is not an important consideration, should well lighting be introduced. Of the two evils I should personally choose top lighting, other things being equal. The fewer the number of panes constituting a window the greater the amount of light admitted. Every bar means a reduction of light, not only because of itself, but also because of the increased number of corners—those little spots where the fingers of the window-cleaner never reach. It is sometimes objected here that

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

windows, if too low, encourage the loafer to spend his time watching the happenings in the street; in the United States it is argued that a view of what is going on inside the library from the outside is excellent publicity. I incline to the latter view; the former can best be overcome by proper control. Wherever the light obtainable is deficient in quantity or quality, it can be improved to some extent by the use of light colourings for walls and furniture. The more frequently the colourings are renewed the greater the value of their reflective powers. Especially is it to be noted that the use of light coloured enamels on metal shelving, red, light blue, orange, etc., not only tends to increase lighting, but it prevents a library from creating an impression of dullness and drabness, so obvious from the blacks, dark blues, and greens which have been so difficult to get away from. Also in sunless rooms orange and red enamels do give a suggestion of synthetic sunlight, and, if the psychology of a reader is ever affected by his surroundings, such a provision must be an advantage. My personal view is that the serious reader wants a comfortable seat, efficient illumination, and his books easy of access, and in 90 per cent of cases he does not care twopence what materials or colours are used, but the odd 10 per cent may be impressionable, and as these light colours cost no more than the dark ones there is every reason why they should be recommended.

CHAPTER VIII

ARTIFICIAL LIGHTING

Interior lighting of reading rooms and book stacks has occupied the time and brains of illuminating engineers for many years, but it is only quite recently that the more difficult problems have been in any way satisfactorily solved. Practically every department has a different problem: what is satisfactory for shelving is not so suitable for tables, neither is the overhead lighting in news rooms the right thing for a reference library. The real problem to be faced is that of providing a really satisfactory lighting system for all purposes, while at the same time ensuring that the consumption of current is the minimum necessary. Artificial lighting may be based on either local or general lighting, or a combination of both. By local lighting is meant the provision of light only at the particular places where light is needed—a newspaper on a stand, a seat at a table, a case of books in the library. In general lighting the whole space is flooded with light as in daylight. That is to say, light enough for all purposes is diffused without directing it anywhere especially. With local lighting, less light is used and it is therefore cheaper in consumption, but it requires numerous fixtures, and fittings for lamps, reflectors, etc., and provision for an adequate supply of floor or wall plugs, which together make the

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

initial installation more costly. In addition, it is generally rather difficult to make these fittings always beautiful to look at. Here again the utilitarian side has to be given preference. What is your lighting system required for? The answer is, of course, to enable readers to see to read books and periodicals with ease, and any system which makes this more difficult by concentrating on the aesthetic side of lighting fixtures is unjust to the readers and not a help to the library's finances.

If a library has to depend entirely on general lighting made to serve all purposes, it *must* mean that too much light is being provided in some places and too little in others, or else that waste of current is going on. If, for instance, in a reference library general overhead lighting has to serve the reader at the table and to light the books on the bottom shelves and those at the top, it is obvious that if the bottom shelves are sufficiently illuminated there must be far too much light at the top, while if only sufficient is given for the top shelves, then the bottom ones must be insufficiently shown up. In practice, a combination of general and local lighting is required. Tables, open shelves, periodical racks, catalogue desks, etc., should be individually lighted, while a feeble general illumination is required for traffic purposes. Each department of a library requires separate treatment: what is best for one is not necessarily so good for another. The things to avoid are glare and the uneconomical consumption of electric current. In the general newspaper and

ARTIFICIAL LIGHTING

reading room, with a continuous flow of traffic in and out, overhead lighting must be predominant, with individual lighting of tables and newspaper stands. This latter, to avoid any tampering by the public, must be controlled from the staff enclosures. If the reader could be trusted to use independent switches properly, it would be a considerable advantage to both him and the library, but this department is not usually provided with continuous supervision, and it is not wise to depend on the good faith of users of the department. Where control is complete, individual lamps and switches at tables and stands will mean a very considerable saving in maintenance charges. One of the chief difficulties in general lighting is that if there are four or five readers scattered about the room, as much light must be provided as if the room were full to capacity. Readers move from table to table, or stand to stand, and from the moment of darkness all lights are required to be in operation. In these circumstances it will probably be found that individual lamps suspended not more than 8 feet above the floor, adjusted to the positions of tables and stands, will meet the problem best, but special provision of either strip lights or bracket-lamps should be provided at wall stands for newspapers, so that the shadows cast by the suspended lights and the person of the reader may be counteracted. It is difficult to entirely avoid glare from suspended lights, although the provision of holophane shades and "pearl" bulbs will reduce it substantially. An

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

advantage obtained from overhead lighting is that any change in the positions of tables or other furniture is possible without materially affecting the illumination of them, while individual lights mounted on stands or tables fix the positions of furniture more or less permanently. On the other hand if a room is properly planned at the outset this should not represent a difficulty, and there is no question as to the advantage of individual lighting from the reader's point of view. After all he should be the main consideration. A plentiful supply of floor plugs should be allowed for during construction so that little difficulty will be experienced in providing table lights or other individual illumination irrespective of the position of the piece of furniture concerned.

In the newspaper and periodical room of a municipal library, it will be inadvisable to allow table and other lights to be controlled by the reader. Advantageous as this is, it readily lends itself to abuse in this department, and it is preferable that each lamp should be adjusted to its best position before fixing.) Various kinds of bracket arm lamps are obtainable and the choice of suitable patterns to harmonize with the general furnishing is not difficult. The important things to remember in regard to this type of reading lamp are that glare should be avoided, and that separate switches should be available for each lamp. To prevent glare the lamp shade must be deep and narrow, low enough to obscure the lamp when a reader is sitting at the

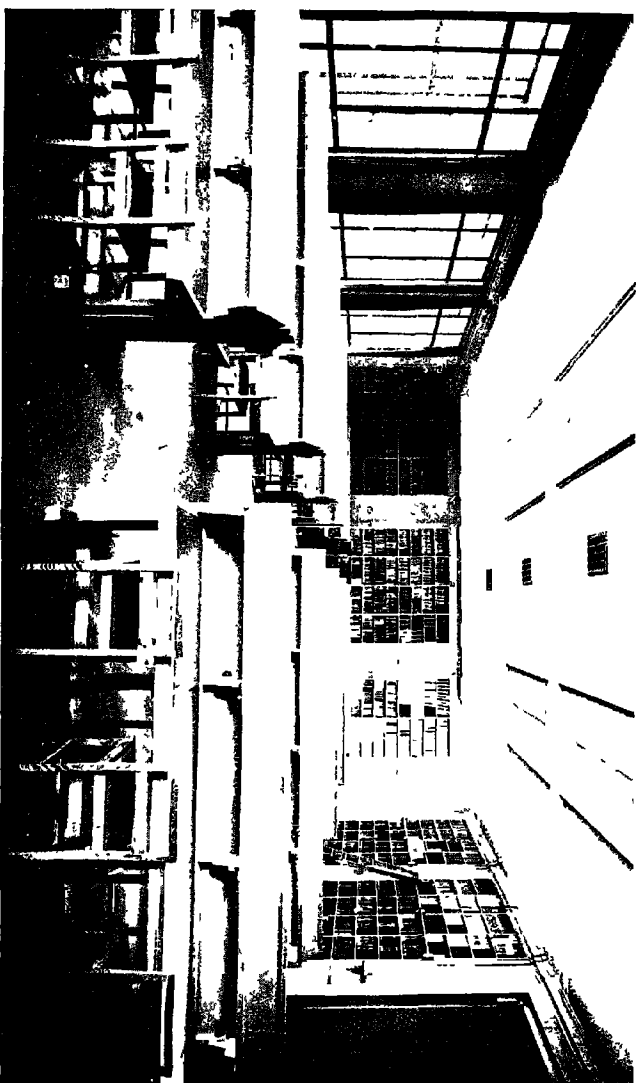


FIG. 5.—The new Law Library at the School of Economics, showing tables equipped with the Sneed Reading Lamps and minimum of overhead artificial lighting

ARTIFICIAL LIGHTING

table. This, of course, means that the radius of illumination is small, but in general reading rooms this is not a serious difficulty. The use of pearl lamps will also assist in reducing glare. Wherever it is possible to provide for the switch to be controlled by the reader, so much the more favourable will be the bill for electricity consumed, and effective supervision of the room should enable this to be done. In reference libraries it is generally possible to provide for readers to adjust the positions of the lights to suit their immediate convenience, and lamp brackets with ball joints are now obtainable which allow for the free adjustment of the light to any desired angle. At all costs avoid adjustable lights which depend upon the turn of a screw or tap to loosen or tighten them. It will usually be found that readers attempt to adjust without using the screw, and force the light into position. The result is that the fittings are very quickly worn out. By far the best method of table lighting yet introduced into libraries is that provided by the Snead Reading Lamp, as illustrated in Figs. 5-7. This lamp resulted from a long series of experiments in libraries in the United States, and is designed to give a diffused light uniformly distributed over the whole table area with an entire absence of glare. An opaque screen is fitted in a vertical position under the centre of the lamp so that readers sitting on opposite sides of the table are invisible to each other when seated, and neither is disturbed by the fidgeting of the other, while there are sound

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

hygienic advantages in this separation. The under part of the roof of this screen is fitted with mirror glass, which not only spreads the light but also increases the illuminating power of the bulb, only one of which is required to light both sides of the table, while the lighting unit is absolutely invisible from the reader. Here, then, in one arrangement is maximum lighting efficiency over the whole reading surface, largely increased by the mirror reflectors, and yet the current consumption is halved because one lamp does the duty usually requiring two. Additional advantages attaching to this lamp are that it may be constructed in simple metal or metal and wood with any elaboration wished for and made to harmonize with any architectural requirements. Fig. 7 shows a table in the new Law Library of the London School of Economics with the metal framework of the reading lamps entirely covered by an oak lectern, to match the limed oak furniture and panelling in this room. The lectern is for a reader's spare books, and enables the table space to be kept free for works actually being used. It will be noticed that this lighting system enables a reader to use an atlas or dictionary in conjunction with a treatise without having to move either into a central position for lighting, as is necessary in the case of lamps with the usual shades. It is true that the solid centre partition on the table hinders proper supervision from one spot, but this fetish of supervision is not the most important thing in a room for serious reading, and, if desired, the solid



Fig. 6.—Main Reading Room, Manchester Central Library, showing Sneed Table Lamps, with non-solid partitions.

Trans/er



Fig 7 — Table in the new Law Library of the London School of Economics, showing solid centre partition with continuous lectern for spare books. Note that one lamp illuminates both sides of each table space

Unger

ARTIFICIAL LIGHTING

panels may be substituted by upright pillars between each place (Fig. 6). This will facilitate supervision at the expense of the individual reader.

Indirect lighting by reflection from the ceiling looks well, but unless ceilings and lamps are kept continuously clean and bright the light is not good enough for close reading. With individual table and shelf lighting, however, there is no need for overhead lighting of any kind to do more than give sufficient illumination for readers to move about a room without coming into contact with the furniture. The inverted bowl which was the fashion recently for indirect lighting is a thing to be studiously avoided in a library. These bowls are merely dirt and fly traps.

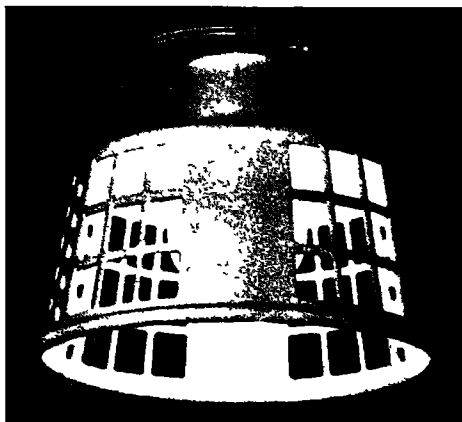
Dark walls and dark furniture require more powerful lights for general illumination than when walls, etc., are light coloured.

Catalogue card cabinets, work tables, etc., are generally best served by strip lighting, and individual switches should be fitted in each instance, so that current is only being consumed when the light is actually required.

(The most difficult matter of all in this problem of lighting has generally been the bottom shelves of bookcases.) In stack rooms various ideas have been tried, without bringing quite the desired results. The old reflected shades produced a certain amount of concentration of light, but unless a lamp of high candle-power was used it was not successful in enabling the titles of low-shelved books to be

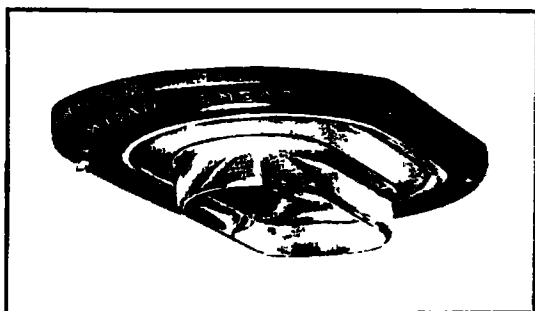
A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

read, while between the shades it was even worse. At the same time there was bound to be a considerable glare. Pulley lights were tried, but while these enabled the light to be directly thrown on to the shelf required, if the ceiling was high enough to permit sufficient length of flex, they were always a continual source of trouble. Flex breaking from excessive pulling, or coming off the runners, was a constant trouble. The invention of the Snead Stack Aisle Reflector produced a solution of this part of the problem of shelf lighting. The principle of this reflector is control of light by means of penetration and reflection from a perforated surface which distributes the light evenly over the surface to be illuminated whether directly opposite the reflector or near the floor of the stack room. It will be seen from the illustration (Fig. 8) that a series of little windows enables the light to penetrate to the upper shelves, the polished aluminium of which the reflector is made concentrates the light on the lower shelves, while the solid portion (in the front of the illustration), if fixed in this position in the aisles, will prevent any undesirable glare when looking up a long aisle between stacks. This reflector is quite the best thing for lighting between rows of bookcases. Being made of aluminium it is sanitary, unbreakable, and economical, as dust cannot collect on the reflecting surface. The interior can be cleaned and bulbs replaced without removing the reflector, which is in one piece and fits any existing outlet, no adjustments being required. The Prismatic Stack



[Luxfer

FIG 8 —The Snead Stack Aisle Light Reflector



[Luxfer

FIG 9 —Wigan-Snead Prismatic Stack Reflector, the alternative to Fig. 8 when head-room is insufficient to take the latter

ARTIFICIAL LIGHTING

Reflector of the same makers is intended for stack floors where there is not sufficient head room to take the Stack Aisle Reflector. The prismatic version projects only about 1 inch below the level of the ceiling (Fig. 9). The bulb and reflector are enclosed in a dust-tight fitting and only occasional cleaning of the lens is required. It gives a remarkable illumination, and the specially designed prisms are a protection against glare. These Snead Stack Reflectors have been fitted in the new public library in Manchester and in the new extension of the Radcliffe Science Library in Oxford.

The lighting of wall cases in rooms in which readers have access to the shelves has never been really satisfactorily solved on an economical basis. When provision must be made for numbers of people to examine a case of books at the same moment, as often happens in a lending library, dependence must be upon either overhead lighting, strip lighting at the shelves, or a combination of both, which is expensive. Overhead lighting is rarely sufficient for the lower shelves, and although the introduction of tilted shelves, as at Hendon, has brought improvement from the lighting point of view, it is obvious that there is intrusion upon valuable floor space, tilted shelves mean more dust on the books, and the appearance of shelves out of alignment is not altogether pleasing. At the same time the idea *has* proved of assistance to lighting and economy. Strip lighting, flood lighting, and similar ideas for open access shelves do not meet

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

the bottom-shelves difficult satisfactorily, and they are all expensive to install and maintain. A new idea

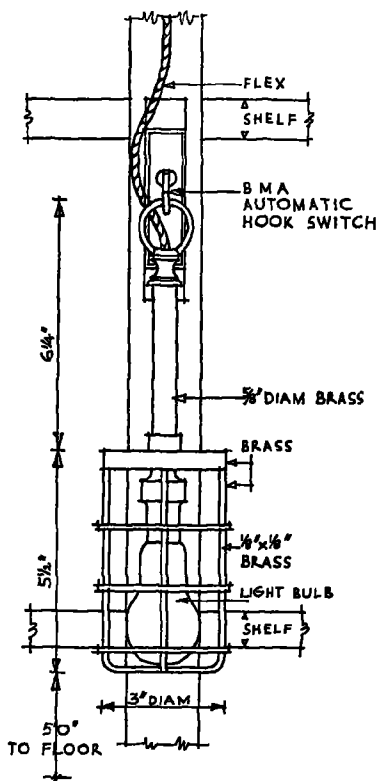


FIG. 10.—The "Polecon" Shelf Hand Lamp

of fitting strip lighting in the uprights with separate switches for each bay has certainly provided a satisfactory lighting of any shelf, but it is very costly

ARTIFICIAL LIGHTING

and the current consumption would be enormous. The problem is not so unsatisfactory when it comes to the question of lighting open cases in reference libraries and in university and college libraries generally. It is claimed that the shelf lamp which is now fitted in all the reading rooms of the London School of Economics, and which is the product of my own mind, is able to give the full light of the lamp on any book, whether shelved high or low, and consumes no electricity except when actually in use. This "Polecon" hand lamp (Fig. 10) consists of a miniature miner's lamp, to which is fitted about three yards of flex. There is nothing new, of course, in that, but the old difficulty of using such a lamp was that there was always the possibility of books, and even readers, becoming entangled with the flex. This was one of the problems I had to get over. The other was how to prevent the excessive waste of current resulting from the provision of separate switches which readers always know how to put on, but invariably forget to switch off when done with. The flex difficulty was got over by providing an oxidized metal cylinder in which is a roller spring. The flex not in use is wound inside the cylinder, only so much as is required to enable the lamp to reach the desired point being outside. The lamp-holder hangs on a hook switch, based on the principle of a telephone receiver, which when lifted up connects the speaking circuit. When the lamp is taken from the hook it is automatically lighted up, and when done with there is no other place to put it but back on

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

the hook again, when it automatically goes out. There are methods of adjusting the lamp fitting if a member of the staff requires both hands free at the shelves, but there is no need to broadcast how this may be done. It is, of course, obvious that these lamps are not suitable for a lending library where perhaps several people may want to examine a bookcase at the same time, but for most open access reference libraries it seems to meet all requirements by giving the maximum light to any shelf and by providing for the minimum consumption of current. The lamps and switches can be fitted to the uprights of either wood or steel shelving, while one fitting will cover three standard size bookcases, and a metal reflector covering half the lamp prevents any glare. It is far less costly to fit in the first instance than strip lighting. These lamps also provide an excellent lighting for book stacks. Wherever there are long rows of stacks to be lighted some method of automatic switching off should be provided. This is best done by having clock switches fixed in place of those usually attached. These switches may be timed to meet any requirements. The usual period for normal use is three minutes. That is to say when the switch is turned on the lamp will burn for three minutes and then will be automatically put out if the user should forget to do it himself. By a simple adjustment the switch may be altered to act for any definite period, or permanently if required. The alternative method is to have two-way switches put in. That is to say a switch is placed at each end

ARTIFICIAL LIGHTING

of the row so that an assistant does not have to traverse each gangway again and again in order to switch the lights on or off, neither is current being continually wasted through lights being left on either through forgetfulness or sheer laziness. A further method of saving current is by means of a switch-socket holder to each overhead light used in the book store, so that when anyone is working at a particular spot for checking or cataloguing the contents of the shelves it will not be necessary to have all the lights in a row burning. This is where the "Polecon" hand shelf lamp is particularly useful in a book store. I would like to point out that the idea that these new methods of lighting which I have described are extremely costly to provide in the first instance is a sheer delusion. As with many other new inventions many people immediately conclude that they are beyond their means, but it will generally be found that they are no more costly than the miserable and inadequate varieties so often installed, and frequently they cost even less. Naturally, the introduction of elaborate ornamentation to any of these fittings will mean more money in proportion, but this is not essential for lighting. In any case it is desirable that alternative estimates should be procured and balanced with the requirements of the situation, and I would especially emphasize the fact that there is always a tendency for architects to forget such things as maintenance charges when they plan for lighting equipment which has no other advantage than that of appear-

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

ance and brilliancy where it is least required. I dare not mention names in this connection, but some of the newest buildings are particular examples of sheer waste in lighting and utter disregard of the reader's requirements.

I would emphasize once again the need to avoid the use of screws and taps to provide adjustability to reading lamps. It is now possible to obtain lamp fittings with knuckle-joints which permit of adjustment to any position without any other operation than pulling the lamp in the required direction. Remember also that with an ample supply of floor plugs there is no need to consider any article of furniture as permanently fixed on account of local lighting. Possible changes in the positions of tables need not affect your lighting plans seriously.

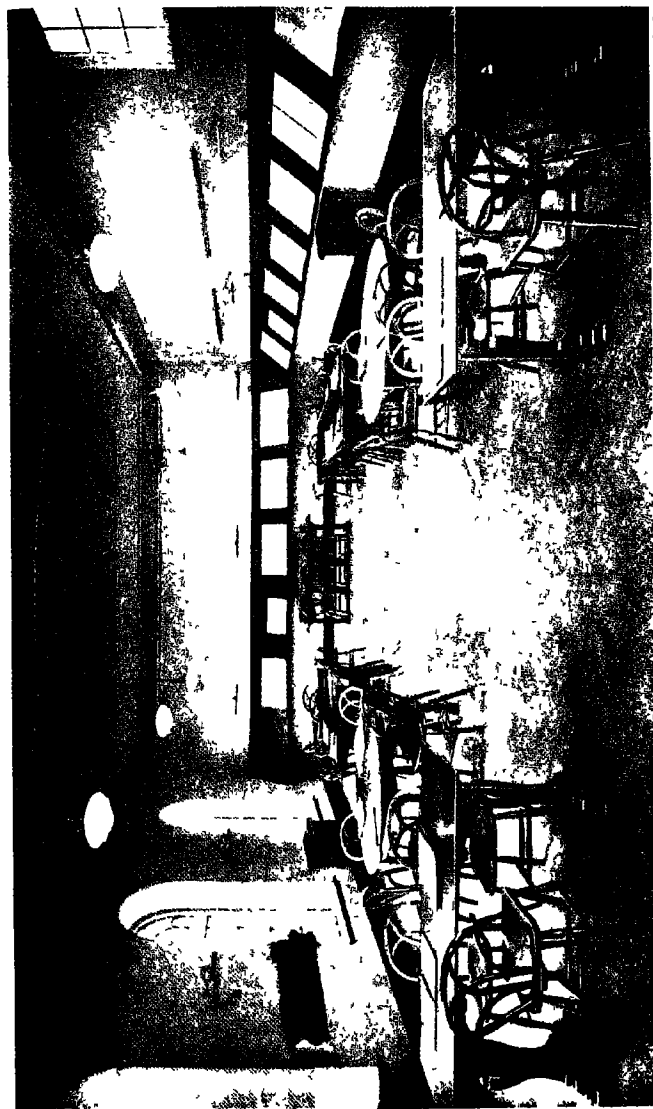
CHAPTER IX

NEWSPAPER AND READING ROOMS

It has been a matter for discussion for many years now as to whether the municipal public library should provide accommodation for newspapers. Many arguments have been brought forward against this provision. It is said that the initial cost of stands for the display of newspapers is out of proportion to their value; that they are generally thrown away; that 90 per cent of readers take their own daily paper; that the general news in each is practically the same; that the cost of upkeep is rendered excessive by a lavish supply of newspapers; and that they attract an undesirable class of reader, such as betting men and readers in search of full details of the latest criminal sensation. Personally I believe the newspaper, within reasonable limits of supply, performs some useful functions in the library in that it attracts readers who otherwise would not use the library, it keeps them abreast of contemporary history, and its advertisements are of considerable value to the community. I do not mean the situations vacant and wanted only, but in particular the advertisements of coming social and musical events, the sales of common commodities and announcements of prices in the big stores and markets of food and clothing, which enable the

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

purchaser to economize in various directions and to have a much more varied choice of the necessities of life. As regards the charge of high initial cost of stands this does not apply if the room is properly arranged and a continuous wall stand fitted as far round the room as is possible without obstructing supervision. The fact that 90 per cent of readers take their own paper is to me a strong argument for the provision of an opportunity of reading the views of other papers. To me it is one of the curses of the present day that a person will religiously swallow the views of the paper he regularly takes without giving much thought to arguments on the other side. The objection sometimes urged against newspaper rooms that they attract undesirable people who in turn keep decent folk away does not carry much weight. A properly organized and controlled room should not suffer on this count. Granted that the racing news experts occasionally monopolize the daily paper at certain hours, it is not usually a serious matter to deal with, while there can be no question that the opportunity of reading current news in a comfortable well-lighted room is a great boon to thousands who suffer from a congested and dreary home life. The daily newspaper is the means of keeping one up to date in the history of the times. The serious thinker wants to know what happened yesterday; a week ago is ancient history nowadays. The newest thing in science, in international affairs, in discovery and literature cannot wait for even the weekly journal. (The



Libraio Lit

FIG. 11 —Compton Road District Library, Leeds, showing the combined News Room and Reading Room

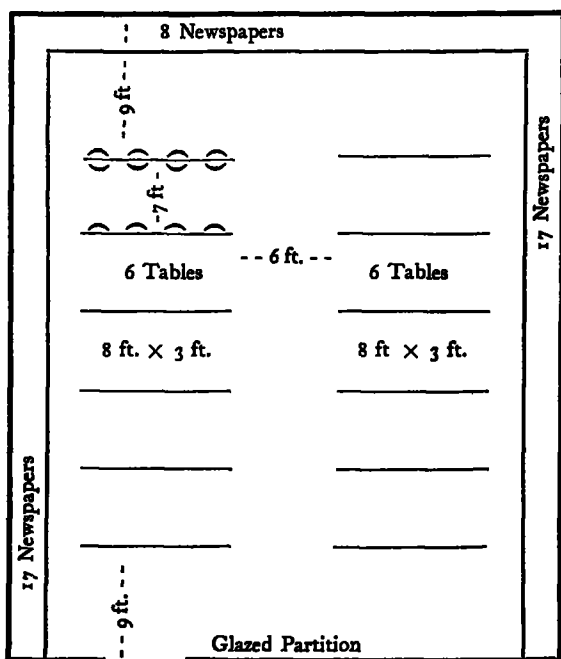
NEWSPAPER AND READING ROOMS

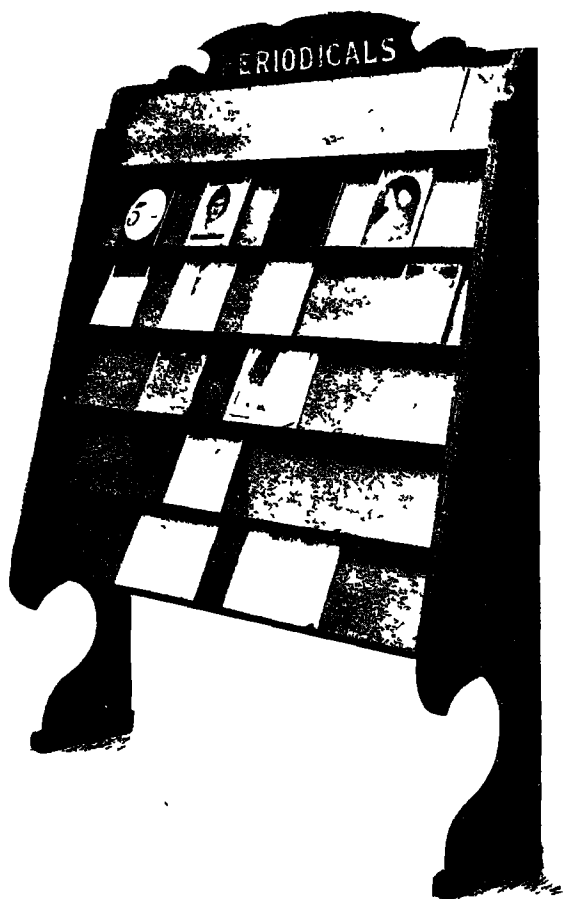
newspaper is an important influence in the life of the community and, as such, should be given a place with other literature in the public reading room. It is generally agreed that the amount spent on newspapers and periodicals in a public library should not be more than about 5 per cent of the income. In the smaller towns the proportion may be rather higher without necessarily being inconsistent with the needs of the locality, but generally it is not desirable that the 5 per cent should be much exceeded. The selection of newspapers and periodicals should be carefully made according to quality, and as far as possible the various fields of thought should be represented.

Granted the provision of newspapers the question of their display must be satisfactorily arranged (Fig. 11). Wall stands are the most serviceable, while the double-sided floor stands should be avoided. They obstruct supervision and are hindrances to the proper distribution of light and air. The usual wall stand is 6 feet high, the upper 6 inches being reserved for a title-plate. Beneath this is a slope 2 feet 6 inches deep, the bottom edge projecting 18 inches from the wall, and being 3 feet above the floor. It is hoped that stands of this height will quickly be replaced by others 4 feet 6 inches high, with slope projecting say 2 feet from the wall. I cannot understand why readers are compelled to stand and read newspapers. The halt, the lame, and the sick are compelled to compete with the healthy and vigorous in this department. In one or two

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

It is better to have a series of shorter tables than very long ones, ease of movement and adjustability being made much simpler. If made in 4-foot units, almost any desired placement of readers is possible. A room 71 feet by 35 feet will allow 42 papers on stands (17 on each long side and 8 on one short side) and table seats for 96 readers, spaced according to the data mentioned above. One side of the room will be left perfectly clear so that the supervision from, say, the lending library desk is simple.





[*Libraco Ltd*]

FIG 12.—A convenient rack for the display of current periodicals A rack of this type, 5 ft wide, will accommodate about forty publications

NEWSPAPER AND READING ROOMS

The particular type of table, etc., used is entirely a matter for local selection, and the consultation of some of the many catalogues of library equipment obtainable. The combination of the newspaper room with the lending library is advocated as providing better supervision, and the elimination of much traffic and consequent noise from the reading room. It is as well to point out here that there are some advantages to be gained by having seating accommodation on one side of the tables only, as previously noted, but this would mean a decrease of at least 10 per cent in the number of seats, owing to the larger number of gangways and the fact that each should be 4 feet wide.

The method of displaying periodicals to be adopted for this room requires a decision before the furniture is ordered. If positions at tables are to be allocated to periodicals it is better to have a partition down the centre of each table in the nature of a rack, about a foot high, in the slot of which periodical covers may stand upright with the name of the journal on the projecting part of the cover. The fastening of periodicals by cords or chains into fixed positions is not recommended. It does enable a regular reader of a publication to know where to go for it, but it is not exactly satisfactory to a reader to be compelled to sit at one particular place, be it ill-lighted or more draughty at the moment than elsewhere. The different types of racks for the display of periodicals may be seen in the catalogues of Libraco Ltd. (Fig. 12), and I need

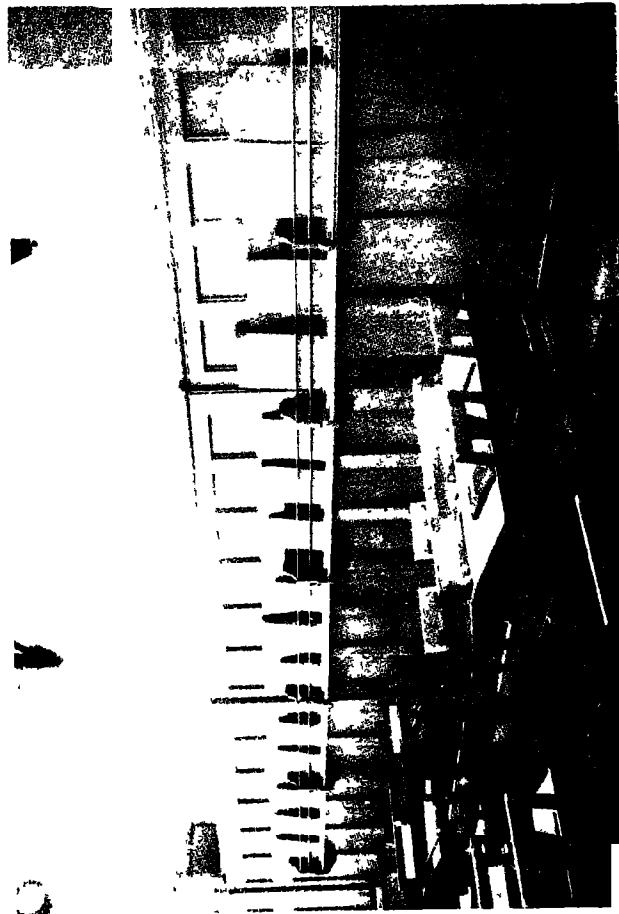
A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

only mention here that some sort of rack is usually required in addition to those at tables, as there are rarely sufficient places available to give every periodical a definite position at a table. A convenient and space-saving arrangement is to have a continuous tray with supporting rail placed on the walls near the tables, about 6 feet above the floor, in which periodicals in their covers can be placed easily visible from the tables and convenient for consultation (Fig. 13). The newest idea for a periodical rack is the "Polecon" rack, designed by myself, and therefore difficult to write about here. It is especially intended for reference rooms where back numbers of the periodicals are frequently required (Fig. 14).¹

One other thing to be religiously boycotted is the chair with a spring seat. Such chairs usually cause trouble very soon by the springs wearing through the covering and are more of a nuisance in a library than almost any other kind.

Provision should be made in this room for a stand and shelf to display time-tables and directories. A standard type is sold by most library furnishers.

¹ For obvious reasons, mainly ethical, I am not receiving any consideration whatever, financial or otherwise, on account of the "Polecon" hand lamp or the "Polecon" periodical rack. The latter is registered by the makers who receive whatever benefits are derived from sales. Readers may rest assured that any recommendations I make here in regard to equipment or furniture of any kind are absolutely for the good of the cause and are in no case influenced in the slightest degree by manufacturers or sellers. They are also the results of experiment and personal experience in every case, the outcome of extensive research in recent years purposely to discover which and what seems best for its purpose.



[Lithyaco Ltd.]

FIG 13 — Magazine Rail as installed in the Hastings Public Library

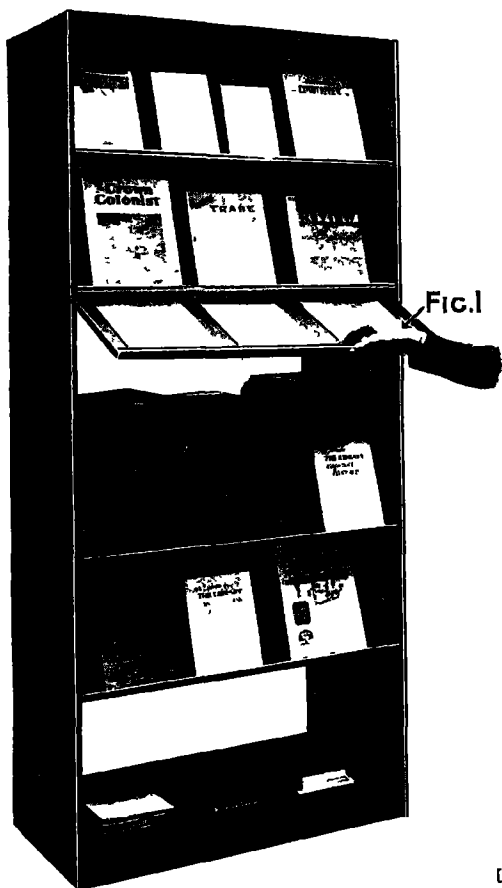
CHAPTER X

LENDING LIBRARY

The second busiest department of the Public Library is usually the Lending Library, and this should be so planned and arranged that it becomes an attraction to the prospective borrower. There should be ample floor space and sufficient lighting, while adequate ventilation at all times and proper warming in winter are considerations which appeal to the average reader, even although he is generally in this department for a very short time. He will probably stay a little longer whenever he is able to sit down and examine the books he is interested in instead of being compelled to browse standing. No lending library should be without a small table and a chair or two for readers, who may be old and feeble, or lame and weary, or even fit and active but at the same time appreciative of extra bits of comfort. It is astonishing that in these days of folding chairs and tables there are still libraries where to sit down in a lending department is considered an impossible luxury. No library is too small to have provision of this sort made, and it will undoubtedly be appreciated. Order and system, easy access to the books, and avoidance of congestion at desks or gangways are the things one has to keep in mind in the planning of this department. While attracted by its appearance the local resident should

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

not be frightened by excessive regimentation nor bewildered by the lack of it, but such regulations as there are should be simple guides to the method of using the library, rather than threats of what will happen to you if you try to enter or leave at the wrong opening. It is naturally assumed from the outset that "open access" will be the principle of service in this department, and this requires shelving neither too high nor too low, adequate lighting of books on shelves, and arrangements to bring each borrower under the observation of the staff when entering or leaving. This latter should not necessitate the fixing of barriers and wicket gates only to be opened by the staff. They are not only a hindrance to service, but anything which directly suggests to a borrower, "You are a suspected person and you may not come in until we have had a good look up and down at you" is highly undesirable, as the Americans have long ago decided. There may be risks attached to "non-safeguarding," but its advantages are obvious, and any properly organized library with a service desk and low barrier rails divided by a sufficiently wide gangway, without locked gates of any description, has little to fear from the depredations of possible thieves. In any case the deliberate book thief will not be hindered in his profession by protective methods of the kind mentioned, and it is infinitely better to give your readers the easy freedom of the big department store than to arouse grievances in people who are sensitive to any act. directly or indirectly



[Steeletta

FIG 14.—The Steeletta "Polecon" Periodical Rack The current issues of periodicals are placed on sloping shelves, 14 in high, set on hinges 3 in from the front. Back numbers, until ready for binding, are placed on the fixed flat shelf underneath the sloping shelf. When a back number is required the reader simply raises the sloping shelf (Fig 1) and finds the back numbers immediately behind the current issue, entirely protected from dust, and in space usually wasted. The bottom shelf can be used for the few periodicals which exceed 14 in in length. The rack is 17 in in depth, thus allowing all periodicals up to 14 in to be filed behind the hinges

LENDING LIBRARY

against their personal honour or even their convenience.

The illustrations (Figs. 1-2) will give an idea as to the usual lay-out of the lending department. Provision should be made for an issue desk 10 feet long, 2 feet wide, and 36 to 40 inches high, with return and issue sides each of the same dimensions, and shelves and drawers on the inside. The question of radiating stacks is one frequently introduced when planning the shelving. Their advantage is claimed to be that supervision of everyone at the stacks is possible from the issue desk, thus constituting an additional safeguard against the misappropriation or misuse of the books. To gain this, however, it is necessary that the fan-like gangways shall be considerably wider at one end than the 6 feet normally allowed. This means a serious loss of shelving space, and it is very questionable whether supervision is so important a matter as plenty of shelf room. My own experience goes to show that at a busy lending library desk there is far too much detail to be seen to for the staff to have much opportunity for detective work. On the other hand as the library grows the question of book accommodation becomes a pressing problem and every foot of space available makes the problem simpler. In any event, radiating stacks should not be introduced into a square or oblong room, but in semicircular compartments, as at the North Islington branch library, the loss of space is not so serious, and their use may depend upon

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

that blessed word "supervision" and its influence on those responsible for the control of the library.

Shelving in a lending library should be of steel. Whatever effect is produced upon a reader by what is called "atmosphere" (I refer of course to the aesthetic quality and not the material element comprised in many reading rooms) is not usually operative in the lending department. Steel shelving is durable, and far less costly than wooden shelving. It is easier to keep free from dust and its more skeleton character makes it less of an obstruction to light and air, while the comparative thinness of the uprights, etc., enables a greater number of books to be stored in a given space. Metal shelving can be enamelled to match any colour of wood, and the possibilities it provides of introducing bright, cheerful colours, and "artificial sunlight" in rooms not receiving the sun's rays make it an extremely desirable material for this purpose. A room with shaded pink walls and orange red metal shelving and desk, with rubber or linoleum top for the latter of a mahogany colour will be far more attractive and less costly than one fitted entirely in oak. Shelving adjustable to every inch is all that a lending library requires when open access is in operation. Exact adjustability to a tiny fraction of an inch as claimed for some types of shelving is of no real advantage. In a closely classified library with shelving not more than 7 feet 6 inches high it is very rarely possible to gain room for an extra shelf however fine an adjustment is provided, while the fact that most of these

LENDING LIBRARY

fittings are patents inevitably means that the shelving will cost you more. Adjustability you will never want is not worth paying for. Every shilling saved in the initial equipment of a library, provided what you get gives you all that is essential, means more books or better books or at any rate something else which would not otherwise have been procurable. On the other hand it must be admitted that Vernier steel shelving which has minute adjustability, has given great satisfaction in a number of libraries. Lending library shelving should be not more than 7 feet 6 inches high, each shelf 3 feet long and 8 inches deep, with a plinth of about 10 inches at the bottom to make the lowest shelf easier of access and to assist in keeping the books on this shelf free from dust. In estimating the number of shelves required allow 10 inches from shelf to shelf. Thus a case 90 inches high will provide seven adjustable shelves plus the bottom shelf, making eight in all in a single-sided stack. On the average eight volumes occupy 1 foot of space, so each shelf will take twenty-four volumes, or taking the figure at twenty-five volumes per shelf it will be seen that each side of a standard size bookcase will hold roughly two hundred volumes (25×8). Allow 6 feet of gangway between each case and between the desk and the nearest case as a minimum and it will be easily worked out how many volumes can reasonably be contained in a room of a given size. It is not essential that the maximum quantity of shelving which the room will hold should be pro-

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

vided at the beginning, but its location should be allowed for and if double gangways (13 feet 6 inches) are left it is a simple matter to introduce new double stacks (18 inches wide roughly) as occasion demands. Wall shelving is not generally economical, and if against outside walls there is always a possibility of damp affecting the books. If very long stretches of shelving have to be provided it is desirable to have a break 3 feet wide at intervals. A run of 18 feet of shelving, for instance, is better as two sections each 9 feet long, rather than one section, or even of two, say 12 feet and 6 feet. By keeping your shelves at a standard length of 3 feet every one is interchangeable. The planning of this room demands particular attention to this point, and if any pillars, abutments, or stanchions are necessary they should be planned to fit the standard size shelving and not the shelving made to fit the columns.

If wooden shelving is used it may be necessary to have special shelving for music or heavy books. Such shelves should not exceed 2 feet 6 inches in length, otherwise they will be likely to sag badly. With steel shelving this will not happen. The shelves have usually a turned-down flange in front which makes for excessive strength. In fact, when testing the "Steeletta" steel shelving before it was supplied to the London School of Economics, I found that there was no sign whatever of bending even when the weight of two porters was being carried. These shelves can be supplied with a continuous label-

LENDING LIBRARY

holder on the front of the shelf, making "guiding" easy. The reason why wall shelving is not economical is that, even if not broken by windows or abutments, it is generally possible to shelve more books in an additional double-sided floor stack which can be installed between an existing stack and the wall if the latter is not used for shelving. In this case it is not necessary to have a gangway of more than 3 feet between ends of cases and the wall instead of 6 feet if wall cases are used. This enables a two-sided extra standard bay, 3 feet long, to be provided, giving space for four hundred more volumes. Unbroken wall space with shelving of full height is not generally practicable, and even if it is possible it is much better to make provision for a small table and a chair between the cases. One or two of the combination chair and steps will also be appreciated by borrowers. The argument that wall shelves are very convenient for housing all the works of fiction is neither very plausible nor defensible. In my opinion it is much better to have alternate sides of the floor stacks used for fiction. Borrowers are far more likely to notice the non-fiction works than they are if the fiction is all together on the walls. They usually make a bee-line for it in the latter case and rarely see anything else.

In estimating the approximate quantity of shelving likely to be required it may be assumed that 10 per cent of the population will become registered readers within a short time, and the stock should be calculated at three volumes per reader. In other words,

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

from a population of 50,000 it may be expected that 5,000 will quickly register as borrowers, therefore a minimum stock of 15,000 volumes should be provided. This will need approximately 2,000 feet of shelving, allowing for proper distribution and easy handling of the books, but of course something like one-fourth of the stock will always be in circulation, and it is rarely necessary to call in all the books at one time nowadays. In my early days in libraries, before open access was thought about in this country, the lending library used to be closed annually for a fortnight for purposes of stock-taking and all books had to be returned to the library for this purpose. Any public library which still follows this ancient custom is out of date. The number of borrowers to use the lending library may ultimately reach to 15 per cent of the population, and the minimum provision of stock should be gradually raised to four volumes per borrower. It is generally possible to make an estimate of the additional readers to be expected by a careful study of census figures for the district, showing the actual average increase of population. This, however, may vary considerably through economic or other influences, but it is a good foundation upon which to base one's calculations.

In the process of time the number of books withdrawn for various reasons—worn out, out of date, etc.—will become very considerable and the demand for increased shelf accommodation will proportionately be lessened. In any case the largest towns need

LENDING LIBRARY

not plan for a stock of more than 50,000 volumes in the central lending library, as long before the need reaches that figure it is obvious that branch libraries of some sort will have to be established. When that time will be depends largely upon the nature of the district. It is generally agreed that the influence of a library does not extend more than a mile from its walls and a town with extended boundaries and an accumulation of villa residences will want to make this provision for branch establishments sooner than a congested district with most of the population gathered together in blocks of dwellings or close-fitting rows of houses. In the latter case it is wise to work on a basis of one library for every 60,000 people; in the former to ensure that no resident is more than half a mile from some library service station. It has to be remembered that the same rate has to be paid by every householder for library purposes whether he lives next door to the library or on the outskirts of the district and every reasonable effort should be made to provide facilities for all. Naturally an area with a limited number of people to the acre cannot be supplied with a permanent building with the usual departments in every case, but delivery stations can be established to begin with, and a complete branch library built later when the population has increased sufficiently to justify it. Again, the stock of books may be affected very much if, in a large industrial district, thousands of workers who live outside the library area are allowed to register as borrowers, or

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

if an extensive issue of extra tickets is contemplated. But these are points which can only be determined at all satisfactorily when experience has shown what demands have to be met. What is fairly certain is that a good margin of room space should be allowed wherever possible so that increased use of the department can be provided for without having to permit crowding of either books or borrowers. It is unnecessary here to dilate upon the smaller equipment required in a lending library. Visits to other libraries and to showrooms of library equipment and furniture are the most profitable in ideas to suit one's special needs, but be sure of your need beforehand. Because a particular piece of furniture serves its purpose admirably in one library is not always a good reason for fitting it elsewhere, neither is it advisable always to believe a maker's or salesman's statement that "it is quite the best thing on the market." What is essential is that those responsible for the library should get as near as they can to the ideal. ✓ The ideal lending library requires to be stocked with good books, made easy of access, well housed and cared for, a library which by its bright and smart appearance will attract the local resident and by its comfort will induce him to come often and stay long enough for him to realize the "charm of books." By "comfort" I mean not only those material things which please the *eye* and provide rest for the *body*, but that atmosphere of trust and the desire to help on the part of the staff which relieves the *mind* of the reader. ✓ How delighted

LENDING LIBRARY

I should be if I could give the lie once and for all to a very well-known and intellectual friend of mine who, when discussing this point, said, "The only atmosphere I have ever *noticed* in a public library is one that called for immediate disinfection"!

CHAPTER XI

REFERENCE LIBRARY

Municipal reference libraries in this country are generally free to all comers, and practically every library authority, whatever the size of its area or population, attempts to provide a reference department without regard to local circumstances. In many cases it has not been found possible to maintain such a department in a satisfactory state of efficiency and it would have been far better to have strengthened the lending department by using the money spent on the reference department, and simply providing essential quick reference books in the latter. It is nearly time libraries generally began to reduce the arbitrary barriers maintained between the reference and home-reading sections, and, as in the United States, to make available for loan much of the present stock now restricted to consultation on the premises. Especially is this so in the case of those libraries which find it impossible to maintain the two sections adequately and which are situated near enough to large town reference libraries for those in need to take advantage of them. The *Report of the Public Libraries Committee* sums up the problem very clearly to the effect that "the desire to form an excellent reference collection, which will not be adequately used, should never be indulged in at the expense of the more popular

REFERENCE LIBRARY

lending department. It is certainly better that many expensive scientific and technical books should be worn out in circulation . . . than that they should stand unused on reference shelves." Generally speaking a reference work is a book which is not intended to be read through, but one to be consulted when a particular fact or piece of information is required, such as dictionaries, encyclopaedias, indexes to periodicals, bibliographical guides, atlases, long sets of periodicals, the publications of learned societies, and many similar categories of material, together with the literature of local history and industry. The smaller library should be content with such material in its reference department. The large library will, of course, include highly technical works and authoritative treatises on all subjects, especially those which are better suited for consultation than for continuous reading. It is customary in libraries to allow non-fiction works in the lending department to be consulted in the reference library. A work which is continually asked for from the lending library for reference can usually be considered as more suitable for retaining within the building and not to be lent outside for long periods. The question as to whether books in the reference department shall be allowed out on loan is simplified if the allocation of a work is settled on the lines suggested when it is received in the library. It is still argued that a book which is too large or too heavy to be portable should be placed in the reference department. Personally I

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

cannot see the wisdom of an arbitrary ruling on this point, but as long as provision is made for the loan of such works if requested by a borrower the difficulty is removed. I cannot see why these works should be judged differently from the smaller works. If a borrower cares to bring his car, or a wheelbarrow, or even to hire a pantechnicon van to carry books away if home reading is to be an advantage to him, he should be allowed to do so. One special instance I heard of was that of an architectural student who wanted to copy some plans from a large work on architecture, which, possibly rightly so, was in the reference department. The inquirer was quite prepared to carry the volume to his house, but instead he had to arrange to bring his drawing-board and instruments to the library, where for many hours over several weeks he was permitted to take up the space usually allotted to two or three readers, and in a room which was almost invariably congested in the evenings. This is, of course, an extreme case, which I mention only to stress the fact that both the library and the reader may be inconvenienced unless a reasonable interpretation is given to the question, "Is this a work for the reference library?" (One is glad to find that nowadays librarians are far less prone to stress the reference side of things and at least one large library has removed practically every obstacle to the loan of books from the reference library for home reading, subject to such works not being fundamentally "reference" books.

REFERENCE LIBRARY

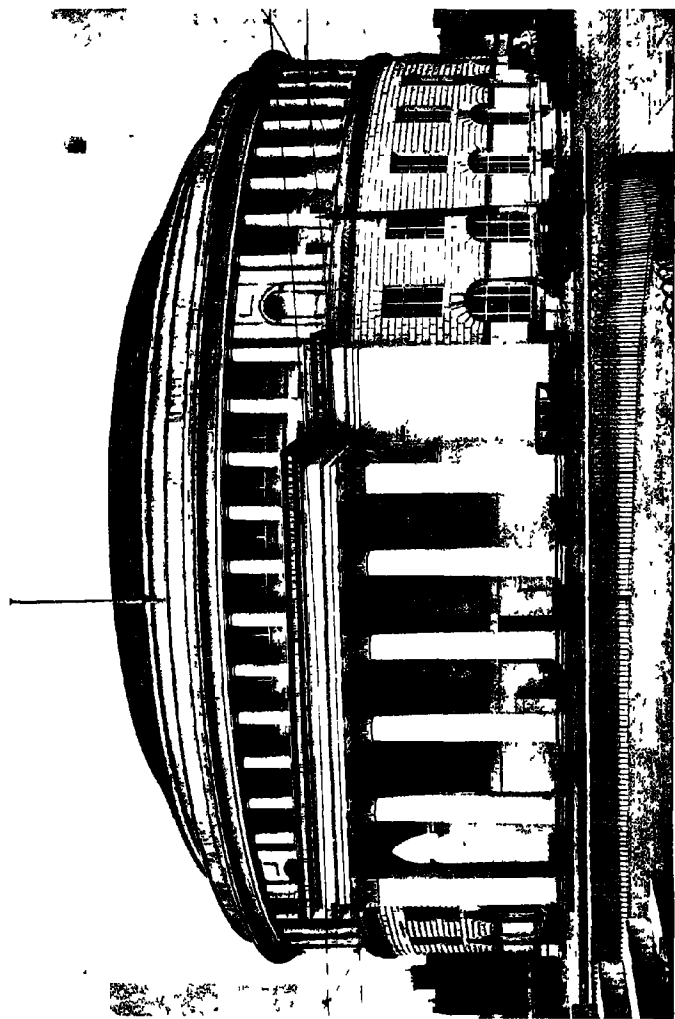
The opinion of the Public Libraries Committee is again of importance on this matter. "When in doubt place in the lending department is a good rule" and "in general, the larger the library is, the less desirable is it to lend from the reference department, since it is more difficult to anticipate the demands that may be made on it. Visitors are entitled to expect to find there the *books which naturally belong to it*, and will cease to trust the library if they are disappointed." The italics are mine, but those six words are of vital importance. I have dwelt on this point rather long because its settlement one way or the other makes a considerable difference in the planning of the department. If, with the exceptions already suggested, the whole stock of books in the library is to be at the disposal of both borrowers and reference readers, as is the custom in the largest American public libraries, the location of the stock must be such as to make it accessible from both departments. I am of the opinion that libraries of the future in this country will have to be designed on this basis, and instead of having to state that the largest section of the stock is only available for reading on the premises to be in the position of saying, "We have a stock of so many thousand volumes, of which four-fifths are available for reading in your own homes," and not as a privilege, mind you, but as an understood right. The very largest libraries could be planned so that the book stacks occupied the central part of a site, and the various

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

reading rooms and loan departments adjoining the stacks on the outside so as to provide for them the maximum of natural lighting possible. In medium-sized libraries the reserve book store might be under or above the reference reading room, with the stack to which users of both departments have access sandwiched between the two. It is possible to have a stack in a number of tiers 7 feet or so in height, the whole of which could be made "open access" if desired, and yet have only one exit to control. In certain circumstances it may be found better to have a horizontal arrangement of the stacks, as in the new library at Manchester, but the book tower system as at the new University Library at Cambridge occupies far less land than a horizontal arrangement, and land in this country is a costly thing. In the main the municipal reference library does not reach such a size as to warrant the introduction of several floors or departments, but a Music Room, Research Reading Rooms, and rooms for special collections may have to be visualized in districts which have space and money for such purposes.

The chief problems requiring decision when planning a reference library are how many rooms; how many readers; what proportion of the stock should the department comprise; what kind of shelving is best for it; how far is open access to be permitted, and how is the remainder or reservoir stock to be stored.

The municipal reference library usually consists



[Lutyens]

FIG. 15.—Manchester Central Library General view from St. Peter's Square

REFERENCE LIBRARY

of one large room, with book storage in addition, but the largest, such as the new one in Manchester (Figs. 15-18), are on a far bigger scale. The Public Reference Library of New York has no fewer than thirteen departments, and there is no doubt that reference libraries in our largest towns ought to be on a scale more resembling Manchester than is usual now. The big industrial and commercial towns ought not to be content with a reference library containing less than a main reading room, magazine room, commercial library, and staff and work rooms on the ground floor, and a first floor containing, say, students' research rooms, a music room, a map room, and a manuscript and strong room. These should be built either around or above the reservoir stacks, so that the books and readers are in as close proximity to one another as is possible. What is possible in Manchester should not be impracticable in many other places, and there is no doubt such a library would be an object of pride among the community and by its very extent encourage its use. The amount of real research carried on in many public libraries is comparatively negligible, not because there is none to be done, but mainly because the facilities and accommodation available are not really worthy of us. That is why I have always strongly advocated a regional scheme for London, a reduction of the *number* of reference libraries, and a co-operative effort by the London Boroughs to provide a smaller number of reference libraries, but each of which would be worthy of

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

its name, and would remove the reproach that there is no municipal reference library in London which can compare in size, in quality, or in the standard of work carried on in it, with the library of a provincial borough with an equal population. It is useless to argue that London has the British Museum Library and therefore there is less need for the provision of great reference libraries elsewhere in London, because the British Museum is not available to persons under twenty-one years of age, and, in any case, the demand for accommodation there is so great that it has become more and more necessary to restrict the issue of permits. The same conditions exist at the London School of Economics where, despite the fact that its reading accommodation has recently been doubled, it has been necessary to charge a fee for admission to others than students or those doing definite and higher research. Every day brings its applicants with the same story—they cannot find anything of real help to them in their studies in the public libraries. I am not for one moment suggesting that the public reference libraries are not of great service to certain kinds of readers. What I am suggesting is that, with the tremendous demand for higher education and for facilities for individual research now prevalent and still increasing, it is essential that the public libraries should endeavour to meet this demand, but it cannot possibly be done by any one of the twenty-eight London Boroughs individually. With transport facilities so great as they are to-day, there

REFERENCE LIBRARY

is no serious student who would mind in the least spending ten minutes in a bus if as a result he obtains a *collection* of books on his subject in one building, rather than *one* book, often a duplicate, in each of eight or ten libraries. This is putting the matter rather broadly, I know, but I am sure the reader will see the force of the argument. There is no sense in the contention that a reference library which contains 50,000 volumes can meet the likely demands of readers in the locality, but that is an argument used by a well-known London librarian when discussing this matter with me. The nature of the contents is something, of course, and the joint catalogue of the London libraries now being completed at the National Central Library will probably show some surprising results. A short time ago I visited the reference library of one of the largest and wealthiest boroughs in London and on the open shelves was exhibited the 1890 edition of Anson's *Law and Custom of the Constitution*, the only edition in the library. The presence of those volumes was positively harmful. It was not only a bad advertisement for the department, but positively misleading to any but the expert, who would naturally avoid it like poison. It is to be hoped that the suggested regional scheme for London shortly to be discussed will bring about some very necessary improvement in the reference library service. It requires no new legislation to do this, but simply the goodwill of those concerned.

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

The number of readers to be provided for in a reference library can only be approximately guessed at. It must be remembered that under the Public Libraries Acts any person, wherever resident, conforming to the rules and regulations, is eligible to use this department, but the minimum accommodation provided may be taken as one seat for every two thousand of the population. In other words, 25 places at the very least would be required for a population of 50,000, and each reader should be given not less than 6 square feet of table space. That is to say, a table 3 feet by 2 feet. Unfortunately provision on this scale is rarely forthcoming, although no real comfort can be felt in a less space. In many places the reader has to be content with an area of 2 feet 6 inches by 1 foot 6 inches, and a table 7 feet 6 inches long by 3 feet wide is made to accommodate six readers, three each side. Whatever the demand may be, it is essential that some provision should be made for the researcher who may come along, and there is nothing better than a table 3 feet long and 4 feet wide, partitioned in the centre by a Sneed reading lamp, as described previously. All double-sided tables should be fitted with these lamps. On open shelves in this room should be the general reference works and such treatises as may be considered in general demand. In fact as far as is practicable the reservoir stock should be confined to local and special collections, out-of-print works difficult to replace, works of considerable intrinsic value, and those other books

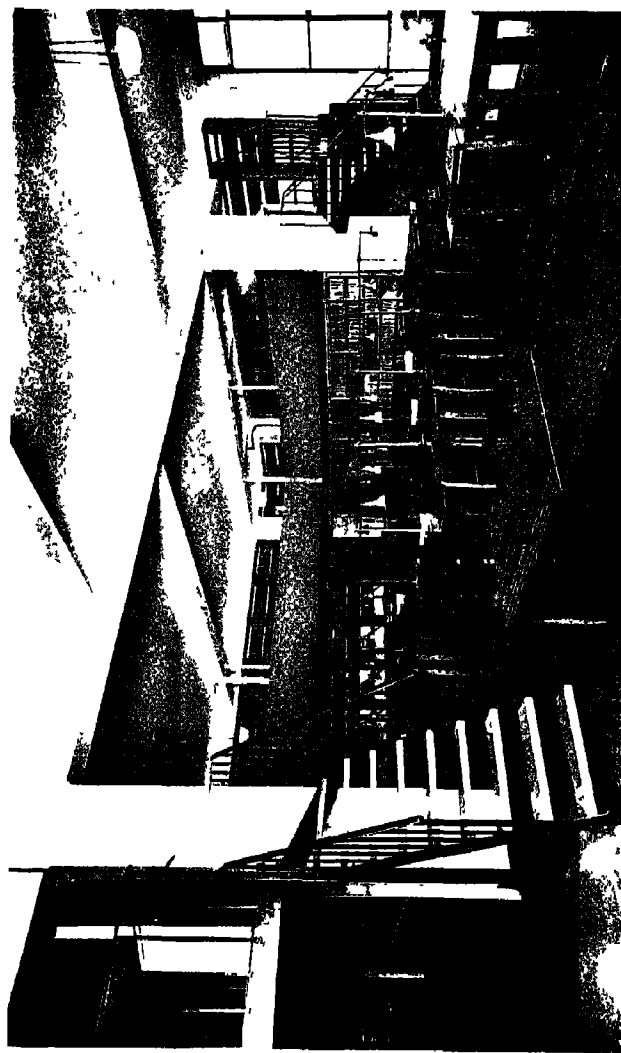


FIG. 19 — A Research Reading Room at the London School of Economics, showing how books on high shelving were made easily accessible by the erection of a gallery

Stateline

REFERENCE LIBRARY

which it is essential should be in the library, but which are only occasionally required. This really means that the contents of your reservoir stock are decided by the amount of fetching and carrying involved. The greater the demand for a book in the stacks the more filling-up of vouchers and journeys by the staff. Even the reservoir stock can be so arranged that access to it is possible to a reader, under strict control, and while it is not usual nor desirable that the whole stock should be "open," the readers will benefit as much as the staff by the fullest unrestricted contact with the books. Always bear in mind the possibility of building a gallery on any windowless walls, and increasing by that means the "open access," and possibly also the provision of one or two quiet corners for earnest readers there (Fig. 19). Any room not less than 14 feet high from floor to ceiling has room for a gallery, which need not be more than 3 feet wide, including space for shelving. Many libraries one visits have this in common, that a room 15 feet high is only shelved up to 7 feet 6 inches and the upper half is absolutely wasted space. In many instances the fixing of a gallery would be quite a simple and comparatively inexpensive way of largely increasing the book storage. Whenever book stacks of several tiers are erected they should be in multiples of, say, 7 feet 6 inches, so that every second tier is on a level with the main floors of the building.

The kind of shelving to be used in this depart-

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

ment requires careful consideration. If wooden shelving is to be used anywhere in a library it is in the reference department, but it must be recalled that wooden shelving is more expensive and holds fewer books than its metal colleague will. Books are of greater value to your readers than shelving, and anything which takes money from the book fund of the library has got to prove that it is worthy of it or essential or both. In the stacks there should be no wooden shelving necessary.† I deal more fully with the qualities of shelving material later on (Chapter XIV),‡ but I want to mention here that any library subject to a very moist atmosphere or sea mists, such as exist on the Welsh coast, might find metal shelving undesirable, as owing to the sweating which takes place, the bindings of books are likely to be damaged where they come in contact with the metal, the dampness causing the covers to stick to the shelf if in place for any length of time.~Definite information on this point should be acquired before deciding.'

Where a reference room is lighted on one side only it will be found advantageous to concentrate the bookcases on the darker side of the room, so that the readers may benefit by having as much natural lighting as possible. Four-feet gangways between the cases will be found ample, but they should not be less, while a minimum of 5 feet for gangways between tables where chairs are on both sides works very well. This is less than is laid down for gangways in the general reading room, but it



FIG 20 —The new Haldane Room in the Library of the London School of Economics, with
[4*architect*]
seats provided on one side only of the table

REFERENCE LIBRARY

must be borne in mind that the amount of traffic in the latter is infinitely greater than is usual in the reference library.) Where there are no seats in position a gangway of 3 feet between tables is sufficient, but in very large well-used departments a central gangway of 6 feet should be arranged for. If readers are to sit on one side only of a table a gangway of 4 feet will be ample, but one must be prepared to sacrifice a certain number of places if this arrangement is decided upon. The accompanying illustrations of the new Law Library (Fig. 5) and the Haldane Reading Room (Fig. 20) in the London School of Economics will give an excellent idea of both the methods of seating mentioned above, the former with double-sided tables and Snead table lamps, with a continuous lectern above the lighting, on which a reader can place books he is not actually using out of his way, leaving the whole of his table space clear for those books he is working with. The Haldane Room (Fig. 20) has one-sided tables, and it is not, in my opinion, so practical a room as the Law Library (Fig. 5), although it is a very beautiful room. Readers can still see the back of a fidgety reader in this room, while in the other a reader cannot see his *vis-à-vis* at all. On the other hand, if supervision is a fetish then the "one-siders" have it.

The alcove system, which seemed to be so popular in the older libraries, is not one to be recommended, except perhaps in club and other private libraries, where isolation is generally liked

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

(Fig. 21). It is not only lack of supervision which makes it disadvantageous in public and university libraries where considerable numbers of readers have to be accommodated, but, unless a great amount of space is wasted, the tables between the shelves forming the alcoves have generally to be placed so near the shelves that readers are continually being bumped into by others searching the shelves for the books they require, and the continual traffic round the tables for that purpose makes things very disturbing for anyone wanting to do serious reading.

An excellent example of the alcove system is to be seen in the Guildhall Library, London, while those interested in floor stacks will find examples in the John Rylands Library, Manchester (four tiers), and the Library of Armstrong College (three tiers, and two more to be erected later). I think the best planned reference library I have seen is the one suggested as a Central Reference Library for Frankfurt-am-Main. This is intended to house the University Library, the Rothschild Library, and the Volksbibliothek.

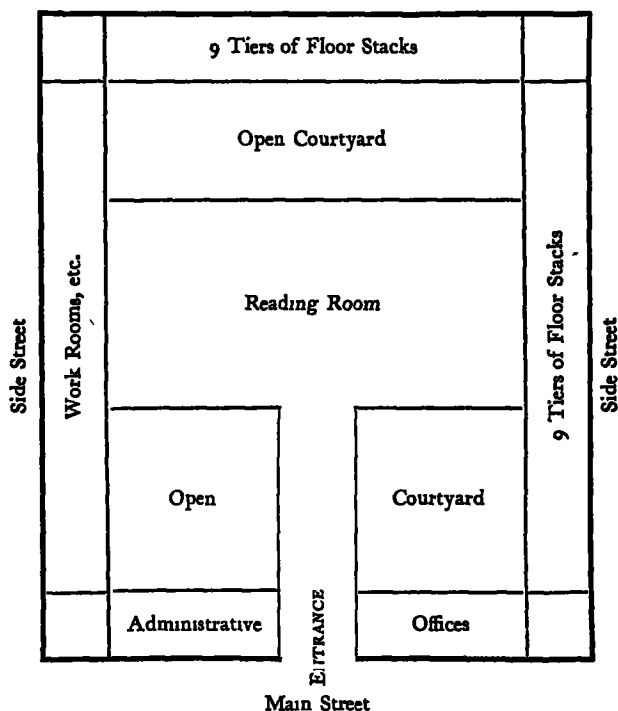
This rough sketch, which I have drawn entirely from memory, will I hope show that (the reading room, having open courts each side, will receive the maximum of natural lighting required, and, not abutting itself on to any street, will have no noise of traffic to disturb its readers. The administrative offices are located next to the main entrance, the corridor of which will be a catalogue lounge,



FIG 21—Part of the Library of the New Jewish Communal Institute, showing the alcove
arrangement between high shelving [Sireletta]

REFERENCE LIBRARY

while the rooms on the left side will be available for work rooms of all kinds, exhibition rooms, manuscript rooms and the like. The shelving accommodation in the stacks on the right and at



the rear will provide accommodation eventually for four million volumes, although at first only sufficient tiers will be erected to take about one million volumes. With such a plan you have all the requisites for the ideal library—maximum of

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

light and minimum of noise for the readers, practically unlimited provision for the growth of stock, administrative offices immediately handy to the inquirer on entering, and work rooms with double-sided lighting and in close proximity to the reading rooms. Whether the plan will ever be brought to fruition is in the hands of the gods. Such a scheme is, I suppose, an impossible one on such a scale in this country, the price of land being what it is, but if Frankfurt, with a population of not much more than half a million, can provide such a library by co-operative effort it should not be entirely out of the question in some of our big centres one day. At any rate, it is the practical ideas behind it all which impress me so much, and these may all be introduced into many new buildings even on a miniature scale.

I have already mentioned table lighting for the reference library, and for lighting the open shelves efficiently and economically I would again recommend the "Polecon" shelf hand lamp, while the reservoir stacks will be best served by the Snead Stack Aisle Light Reflector, or, if the height between floors is less than 7 feet 6 inches, the Snead Prismatic Stack Light should be installed. Do not overlook what I have previously said about time switches and two-way switches in the stacks.

Overhead lighting need not be more than sufficient to light the gangways, etc. That is to say it need not be depended upon for lighting shelves or tables if the lamps I have suggested are installed.

REFERENCE LIBRARY

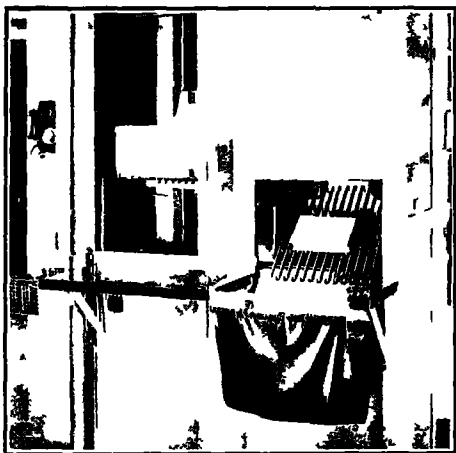
Whether or no you have windows to light the stack floors will depend largely upon the nature and value of the stock. Many librarians of experience, especially in other countries, believe that natural lighting for stack rooms is a mistake, while the many stack floors of the Library of Congress have long windows from top to bottom, the width of the gangways between the shelves, but they are air-tight and non-opening, excluding, as is claimed, dust and draughts. On the other hand the Rothschild Library in Frankfurt has no windows at all in its bookstore. The librarian there was horrified at the mere thought of sunlight ever reaching the extremely valuable books under his control. Against this may be put the important fact that a well-used library would find its account for electricity a fairly stupendous one if artificial lighting only had to be used.

The equipment for this department should include flat storage-desks for files of *The Times*, atlases, and such-like large volumes, and a series of draw-out shelves, 42 inches high, 30 inches wide, and 28 inches deep will provide a convenient way for getting at these large works and for consulting them. From 6 to 7 shelves can be allowed for in a desk of the dimensions given. The width of shelves in a reference library will generally require to be from 8 to 10 inches, the wider ones being necessary for bound periodicals, medical works, technical and scientific literature, and general encyclopaedias, but great care should be exercised

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

in determining the sizes. Eight-inch shelving in general will be found economical, and uniformity allows for interchangeability from case to case. Most books are 6 inches or less in depth, and waste space at the back of books collects dust, while the same space added to the width of the gangways is valuable. In general, calculate eight volumes for each foot of shelving, with these variations: technical and scientific works 7 volumes per foot, medical works $6\frac{1}{2}$, bound periodicals $5\frac{1}{2}$, legal works $4\frac{1}{2}$, parliamentary papers and other public documents 6 volumes per foot.

In stacks of several floors lifts will be required to facilitate the despatch and return of books, and if the readers have access to the lifts anywhere, special precautions should be taken to have these made fool-proof. In a large library where much of the stock is housed at some distance from the reading rooms or delivery desks, it is much to be desired that some quick and sure method of transporting books from shelf to reading room and vice versa smoothly and efficiently should be installed. There is nothing better for this purpose than the Snead Book Conveyor, which is especially designed to take books from any stack to the delivery station, where they are automatically discharged, and to take books from the delivery or service station and discharge them at the stack station (Figs. 22-24). The conveyor consists of a series of aluminium baskets joined by an endless chain. By pressing a button when a book is placed



[Inver]

FIG 22 —Snead Conveyor, showing automatic delivery of book at a service station



[Inver]

FIG 23 —Snead Conveyor, showing control station with push-button despatch and signal-light indicator



[Luxfer

FIG 24 —Sneed Conveyor, showing pre-selective despatch device operated only by staff key, wherever readers have access



[Ibraco Ltd

FIG 25 —Convenient reference library table, 4 ft by 3 ft, for two readers. The pull-out slide gives extra table accommodation. The centre partition, which has a shelf for pencils, etc, screens the readers from each other, and the rack below can be used for books or personal belongings

REFERENCE LIBRARY

in a basket at one station the volume is automatically discharged at any other selected station, and any books, whether single-leaf pamphlets or heavy volumes, can be despatched and received by any station without an attendant being necessary at the receiving station. One attendant at the central control station supervises the entire system. Safety devices provide that overloading, obstruction, or any contact with the safety ledges at the various stations will immediately stop the entire conveyor. The conveyor installed at the London School of Economics has a capacity of sending 1,200 books per hour to 240 different destinations. It is a remarkable piece of machinery, operated by a small engine as used in a motor-car, and provision has been made for the same conveyor to serve four more stations on the other side of Houghton Street by means of a curved horizontal run under the road. For the large library such a conveyor is invaluable. It is simple to operate and quite safe in inexperienced hands; it is quiet and smooth-running, and requires no care except occasional lubrication and inspection.

For other kinds of tables (Fig. 25) than those specially mentioned above readers are advised to consult the catalogues of library equipment concerns, but provision should be made for a shelf under the table for spare books and a sunken book rest in the centre to be used when large folio volumes are being consulted. Pamphlets, lantern slides, maps and plans, newspaper cuttings may also have to

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

be accommodated in the one room, where special departments are not available or necessary, and each will require its special storage method. Pamphlets are most economically filed in lidless "solander boxes," which are open only at the back. These are made of stiff millboard with linen joints, and as they cost only from 2d. to 3d. each are much cheaper than the usual pamphlet boxes with hinged lids. As a consequence should one get dilapidated renewal is not an expensive item. Usually two sizes, 10 inches and 14 inches long and 3 inches in thickness, are sufficient for all ordinary purposes. Newspaper cuttings, if in any quantity, are best kept in folders in vertical files, and any large number on the same subject if to be permanently preserved will be found convenient to consult if each is mounted on sixteen-page paper folders, which can be paged continuously and indexed. These folders may be filed in "solander boxes" and bound into volumes eventually if of sufficient importance to justify the additional expenditure. In any case the folders are much to be preferred to loose filing in large envelopes. The most suitable vertical file is what is called the legal size, each drawer measuring $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches high, $15\frac{1}{4}$ inches wide, and 24 inches deep (inside measurements). Whether metal or wood files are used is largely a matter of taste, and the matching of shelving and other furniture. Steel drawers cost less and if a large number is in use a considerable amount of floor space is saved, owing to the thinness of the metal compared

REFERENCE LIBRARY

with wood; rather more than half an inch being saved with each unit. It is only fair to state that the metal file becomes noisy in use after a time, however good the make may be, and there are some people who can never be relied upon not to push the drawer in with a bang—altogether not a help to the serious reader.

Lantern slides are most easily consulted if filed in a frame cabinet. This consists of a series of "leaves," each holding about a dozen slides in the same way as a slide carrier in a lantern. When a "leaf" is withdrawn from the cabinet the whole detail of each slide is clearly visible against the light, a great saving of time as compared with the ordinary slide cabinet, when each slide has to be withdrawn separately for examination.

CHAPTER XII

OTHER SPECIAL DEPARTMENTS —CHILDREN'S, WOMEN'S, STUDENTS', AND STAFF ROOMS

I do not propose to deal at any length with the children's library, as Mr. Sayers' *Manual of Children's Library Work* has covered that ground much more satisfactorily than I could hope to do, but there are one or two general aspects of the problem which I should like to express my views upon. The first is the need of a special attitude towards the provision of facilities in the library for young people. The special department for children is now a recognized thing in all up-to-date libraries. This has developed from the children's corner, and perhaps before very long we may have the children's building as is common in the United States, controlled by staffs specially trained for service to the young folk. Certainly the general rule in the States is to have as much room provided for the children as for the adults. It is not only a matter of Americanization, but the fact that it is realized in a particular way that an attraction for the library and a knowledge of what it can do if inculcated in the earlier years of life is one of the best forms of propaganda for the library movement, and a love of the library, once installed, is not easily lost when years of discretion are reached. I was immensely impressed

OTHER SPECIAL DEPARTMENTS

by one of the newer children's libraries at Amsterdam two years ago. The building was not extensive. It really looked like a large one-floor bungalow, with its overhanging verandah all round, its mass of flowers growing all round its exterior, and inside a beautifully fitted series of rooms, with large windows, on the ledges of which were boxes containing ivy-leaf geraniums neatly trained all over the window frames. A most inviting place I can assure you, filled with children, orderly and clean, controlled by two or three lady assistants with a parental regard for every member of their "family," all of whom seemed delighted to be "mothered." This is what I think we must visualize for this country as the usual thing.

A separate department, at any rate, must be the minimum for the moment, a department well lighted naturally, well ventilated, warm in cold weather, approached through a separate entrance from the street and as far as possible free from stairs or steps. Bright colourings for walls and paintwork, flowers whenever possible, comfortable chairs, not more than 28 inches high, with specially low tables and chairs for the "tiny tots." A low wall stand for illustrated and other suitable children's periodicals should be provided on part of the wall. Circular tables 3 feet in diameter make a pleasing contrast to the oblong variety, and if room is plentiful the latter may be made for seating one side only. This frequently will prevent a row between Tommy Jones and Eliza Finch caused by the former getting

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

a nasty jar on the ankle from Eliza's fidgeting feet. Shelving should not exceed 5 feet in height. Personally I favour the separation of the Lending department from the Reading Room by a glazed partition, particularly if it is a busy place and homework for school is a considerable function there. There must be a good deal of abstraction caused by the continual searching for books in a one-compartment library, but considerations of space and arrangement may influence one's opinion on this point. At any rate, the larger the room the less noticeable is the disturbance.'

Special reading rooms for women may be looked upon as luxuries, and although somewhere about one hundred public libraries in the United Kingdom have provided them, it is doubtful if such accommodation is really required. If there is plenty of room (and money) available, no harm is done, but if space is limited it is a mistake to in any way cramp the remaining departments in order to provide specially for the ladies. A few very nervous women may be attracted by special provision, but women use crowded lending departments on the same footing as men without complaint so far as I have been able to discover. I know it is argued that many periodicals are expressly produced for women, who should be allowed to enjoy them under the most comfortable conditions. At the same time, many men are interested from the commercial point of view in much of the matter (especially trade advertisements) which appears in these journals. The

OTHER SPECIAL DEPARTMENTS

provision of tables for ladies only is some sort of a solution of the difficulty, but this often means that accommodation is being wasted for long periods.

The same arguments apply to Students' Rooms. All reference library readers like to be considered students and a properly organized department should render this special provision unnecessary. Any privileged class provided for makes further demands upon the staff for service and supervision and consequently upon the funds of the library. It should be noted, however, that any reference library in specially noisy surroundings is not attractive to the person doing serious study, and in such a case it is only reasonable that a quiet room for this purpose should be available.

A lecture hall is an essential feature in the present-day library wherever the resident population is numerous enough to justify it. That is to say it need not be provided at the central library if the latter is mainly surrounded by a day population, but in such a case a branch library should be a substitute in this matter. If a separate hall is established accommodation for two hundred people at 5 square feet per person is a reasonable proposition. If lectures are to be given in one of the ordinary library departments the furniture and equipment should be such as is easily movable. Steel-framed glazed partitions, folding back, between two departments, make an excellent method of providing a room for a much larger audience. A permanent stage should

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

be provided in a hall, and a folding portable platform for use in a library room.

Staff rooms, apart from the chief librarian's office, did not generally exist in my earlier years in libraries. Fortunately local authorities have become either more learned or more humane and things are a good deal better, but even now far less is done for the staff in this direction than they have a right to expect. If library assistants were factory hands, the employers would be compelled by law to make provision for the welfare of their employees while at work and to provide rooms for meals and rest and proper sanitation, but as they are intellectually occupied they are less fortunate in this respect. One does not ask for the elaborate staff accommodation to be found in many American libraries, such as Philadelphia, where there are cafeterias, dining, smoking, and rest rooms, baths, and staff kitchens, but the least that should be done is the provision of a rest room, a room for meals and their preparation, and proper sanitary accommodation for both sexes. This latter in particular should be as near the working departments as possible, and entrances to cloak rooms, etc., should not be directly within the public view. Rest rooms should be provided with comfortable lounge chairs, writing facilities, a bookcase, and should, of course, be suitably heated in the winter months. It pays to make the staff comfortable. It helps to prevent fatigue, but more important still it helps them to feel satisfied with their lot and encourages them

OTHER SPECIAL DEPARTMENTS

to give of their best when they realize that some consideration has been given to their needs as human beings as well as to questions of working equipment.

CHAPTER XIII

BRANCH LIBRARIES AND DELIVERY STATIONS

A branch library differs from a delivery station in that it is a miniature central library with its own stock of books, its own reading room, etc. A delivery station need not necessarily have a stock of books beyond those sent from the central library in answer to applications, and generally it would have no reading room at all. The amount of accommodation in a branch library will depend entirely upon funds and local conditions and requirements. For most places where branches are necessary, such as the suburbs of a large town, the minimum should be a lending department, a general reading room, a collection of quick reference books, not necessarily all in separate rooms. Usually a one-floor building is adequate, and sometimes two rooms side by side will serve the purpose, one as a reading room for newspapers and periodicals, the other as a lending library, which if desired can be closed at mealtimes or quiet periods without inconveniencing the reading room. Branches should as far as possible be placed on main roads and in the thick of the population. In reality, branch libraries should be considered as parts of one large library so far as stock and reading power are concerned; and the books and periodicals in one branch should

BRANCH LIBRARIES

be different in a great degree from those in another. Many standard works and periodicals must naturally appear in all, but as regards the informative works upon specific topics it is preferable to distribute different works upon stated subjects amongst branches rather than to give each a copy of the same work, even if it is *the* standard work. I mean one would have Dicksee's *Accounting*, another Cropper, a third Fieldhouse, etc. Four branches having each five books by different authors on the same subject would be providing a choice of twenty works, assuming such a number existed. Complete catalogues would need to be available in some form showing the entire stock of the libraries of the district, and any reader should be empowered to draw on any branch. All registration of borrowers would be done at the central library so that duplication of tickets could be controlled as desired. In large districts there should be a superintendent of branches responsible to the chief librarian for the general conduct of the work, paying periodical visits of inspection to the branches, and ensuring as far as is desirable uniformity of administration. All the details of committee work, finance, book selection, and other matters affecting the libraries as a whole would be concentrated at the central library, while cataloguing and classification should also be done there to avoid inconsistencies. If the more important work is thus centralized it is desirable that the staffs of the branch libraries should have occasional turns of duty at the central library,

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

in order that their training and progress should not be hindered for want of the practical experience.

Delivery stations are usually poor substitutes for branches and are not always very satisfactory. They seldom carry a stock of books to choose from and borrowers frequently have to take whatever the central library cares to send if the books on their lists are not available; and there is naturally considerable delay in getting books exchanged. But although a delivery station is a poor substitute for a branch it has a special place of its own, and it does enable a resident to get some return for the library rate, which he has to pay on the same basis as those who live close to the central library. It is intended to serve that small or remote district where it would be folly, for obvious reasons, to erect a branch. A sub post office is one of the best places for a delivery station, because practically everybody goes there at some time or other. It is generally possible to have a supply of good fiction and standard works from the central library renewed from there every month or so. Daily exchanges can take place, and by the use of the telephone and tram or bus service a good many wants can be quickly supplied. Better still is to have a delivery van specially for the purpose which can regularly deliver to and collect from each branch. The stations are generally open only for an hour or two each evening, and a nominal sum should be paid for a custodian of any stock of books shelved on the premises. Another substitute for a branch is

BRANCH LIBRARIES

the travelling library, which really means the supply of boxes of books regularly to schools, clubs, institutions, fire stations, and such-like, as well as the small outlying districts which are not big enough to justify the provision of a delivery station even. Birmingham, Hornsey, Croydon, Glasgow, Islington, Lambeth, and Fulham have model branch libraries, while Manchester has a series of large district libraries as they are called, which, apart from the reference library, are almost complete replicas of the central library.

(Serious attention must be given in future to the advantages claimed for the regional branch library, as recently established in Chicago and other American cities. The advantages claimed for the regional branch are that it can do the work of a number of small branches and, when well stocked with books, it is more efficient. It can take over from the central library the distribution of books to the surrounding branches as well as other functions, and it can become a centre for study as well as for the loan of books, the whole resulting in a considerable saving in overhead charges. The facilities now available for transport in this country are such nowadays that readers are hardly likely to complain if they have to travel a few yards farther to get the benefits of a large-scale library, while delivery stations and other distributing points will naturally be able to have a more frequent service from a library in closer proximity to them.

There is a good deal to be learned from American

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

experience in branch library buildings. They are frequently on a very large scale, and much use is made of low bookcases for the separation of departments in place of walls or glazed screens usual in this country. These bookcases can be readily moved into new positions, as they are rarely more than 5 feet in height and not only allow variation in the size of an apartment, but they give an impression of bigness and freedom which is not obtainable from walled-in rooms. As a consequence also it is obvious that there must be considerable advantages from the unrestricted circulation of air and light and the general improvement in oversight, and the possibilities of display provided by such a system. The difficulty here is the problem of book accommodation. Our buildings are usually so comparatively tiny that the general use of 4-foot bookcases would enormously restrict the number of volumes which could be displayed to the public. No one would be keen on using 7 feet 6 inches bookcases if space were so ample that the stock of open access books could be housed in shelving of much smaller stature, but it is an undoubted fact that there is a barrack-like, stereotyped suggestion about branch libraries here which is absent from those in the States. It is again our problem with branches just as for main buildings to give more consideration to interior attraction and comfort, to freedom of movement and absence of restriction. The illustrations (Figs. 1 and 26) will give an idea of two excellent types of new branch libraries in this country. The equipment

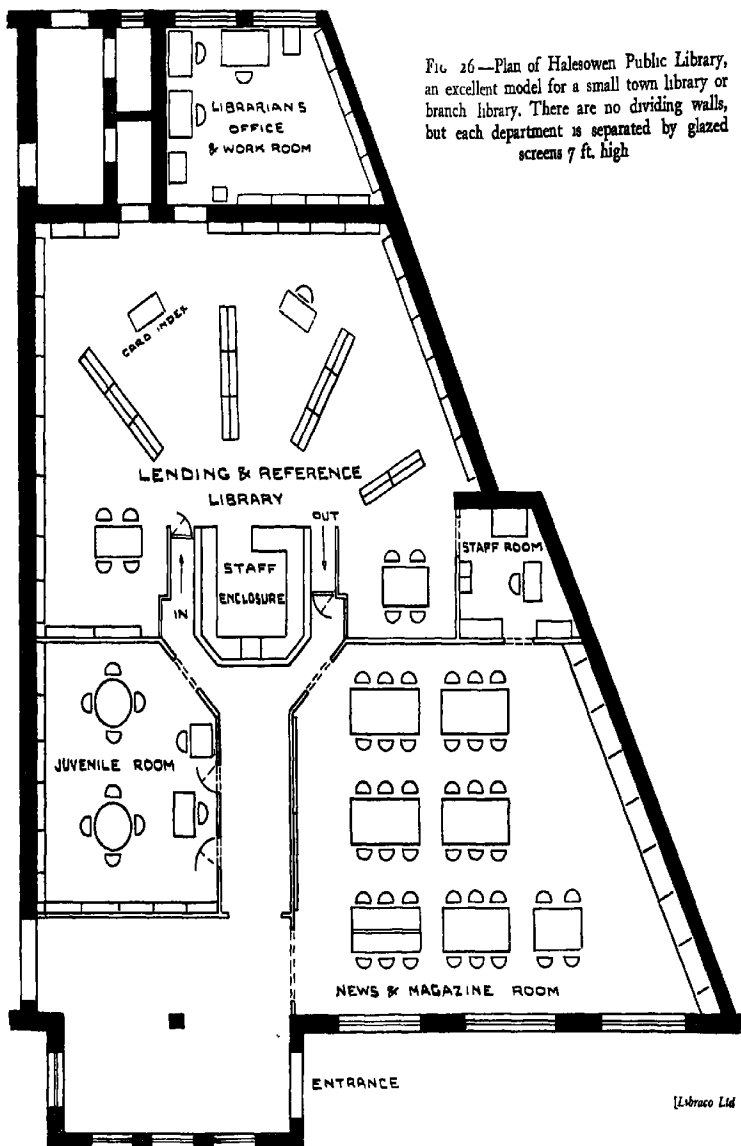


FIG. 26.—Plan of Halesowen Public Library, an excellent model for a small town library or branch library. There are no dividing walls, but each department is separated by glazed screens 7 ft. high

BRANCH LIBRARIES

and furniture of a branch will naturally follow the lines suggested for a central building, but more circular tables can be introduced with advantage to lessen the regimental atmosphere, while branches frequently provide opportunities for outside (and inside) displays of flowers which can only produce good results. I was immensely impressed when I entered the new Carnegie Library at Rheims, in France, a short time ago. It happened to be a rather hot, sunny day, and in the entrance hall of the library, with its marble floor, was a delightful fountain of water, and at its foundation a pond containing many glittering goldfish, while around the hall were large flowers in pots, producing altogether a charming effect, and certainly filling me with envy. It is useless to argue that such buildings are not possible here, or that aesthetic aids of the kind mentioned would only be abused. The people of Rheims are no more and no less well-behaved than our own people, but there is no question that their library was popular, that the things of beauty were semi-sacred to its users, some of whom were most eager that I should miss nothing of that side of its character.

CHAPTER XIV

SHELVING AND OTHER FURNITURE

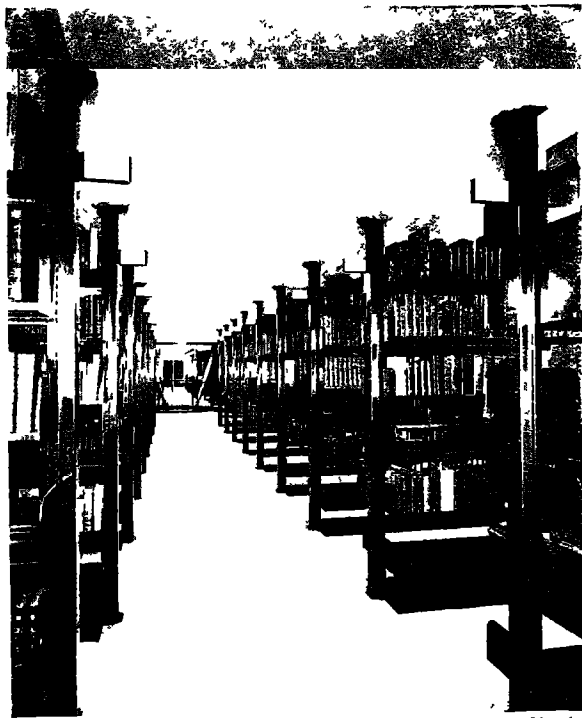
Some aspects of the shelving problem have already been touched upon earlier in this work, but the main considerations have still to be discussed. First in importance is that ever-present difficulty of deciding between wood and metal for different departments. The preference for wood on aesthetic grounds will be a long time dying in this country. People who dislike metal shelving altogether insist that there is nothing to compare with wood in giving the right atmosphere in a library. Many others will favour the use of metal shelving in non-public rooms and even in the lending department, but are unable to conceal their dislike of it in a reference library reading room. It cannot be denied that oak shelving and furniture are naturally suitable materials for reading rooms and unless there are compensating advantages in the use of metal the matter would end there. Are there, in the first place, advantages to be claimed for wood in addition to the aesthetic ones, assuming for the moment that the latter are really present? I think it can be argued that wooden shelving is less likely to cause damage to the bindings of books either from sharp corners or from stickiness through damp, and it is more readily "guided" if you have to depend on drawing pins, etc., while it

SHELVING AND OTHER FURNITURE

is certainly adaptable to changes in length and height if re-erection is necessary, always assuming that it is not irretrievably damaged in taking down. This, I think, is all that can be said in its favour. The last two points are really unimportant. At one time it could also be urged that it was less costly than metal, a 'very great consideration. But the development of standard patterns and mass production in recent years has reversed the position and, speaking quite generally, it can be taken as a fact that good metal shelving is only about half the price of good wooden shelving. There are many other advantages which can be claimed for metal shelving. The somewhat skeleton character of its construction renders the penetration of light and the circulation of air much easier. It is practically dust proof in that dust can easily be removed from the shelves and uprights, while in the case of wood it generally penetrates, and stains of any kind are difficult to remove entirely. Metal is in itself fireproof and in large book stores its use may make a difference in the premiums charged for insurance as against wood. One of its chief recommendations is that in a given area more volumes can be accommodated on metal shelving than on wood because the metal shelves and uprights are much thinner, and the saving of, say, half an inch in every upright is a matter of first importance. The larger the number of books to be housed the more serious does the saving of space become. This point may be emphasized if shelves 4 feet long are used, which

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

is perfectly possible in metal without the slightest chance of sagging, even with the heaviest books, the turned-down fore-edge of the shelf adding immense strength to it. It is generally agreed that anything longer than 3 feet in wooden shelving is not to be recommended, and when heavy books have to be accommodated the shelves would need to be shorter still. The shorter the shelving the greater the number of uprights required, and as these cannot reasonably be less than 1 inch in thickness the difference in book space available will be obvious. Again, in the bracket type of shelving it is possible to have shelves of different widths in the same stack. This may be a great convenience when large or oblong volumes require to be shelved next to octavo volumes in the same classification. Metal shelving also lends itself to colour schemes in a way which wood cannot.) Oak and mahogany, of course, it may be said generally fit in with anything, but they cannot be used very well in anything but their natural tints, and in this era of a "brighter England" the possibilities in metal are many and varied. The ability to introduce bright colours into library furniture is appreciated by progressive libraries. I have already dealt with this aspect in Chapter X. The advantages enumerated above tell largely in favour of metal shelving, and, added to the factor of cost, should generally turn the scale in its favour. Floors in old buildings should be carefully tested before deciding upon the erection of metal shelving upon them. Every 3-feet metal



[10160]

FIG. 27 —Bracket Stack in Manchester Central Library,
showing Snead Stack Aisle Light Reflectors

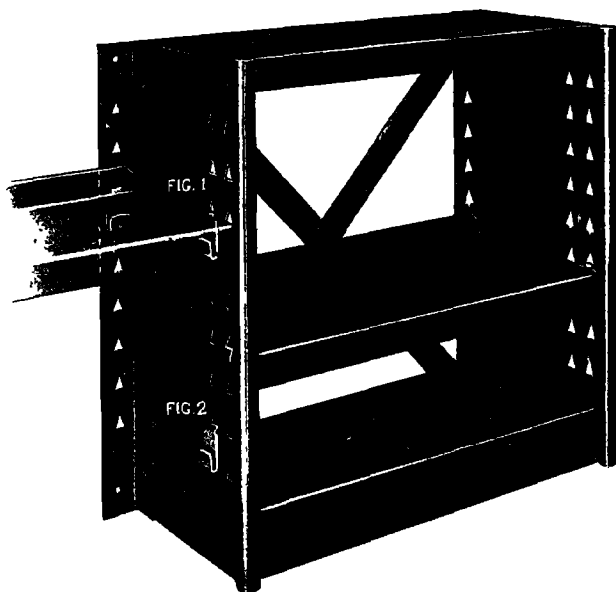


FIG. 28—Steeletta Adjustable Steel Shelving. Fig. 1 shows how turned edge of shelf drops into lug and Fig. 2 lug hanging from triangular hole, which prevents lug falling out. The double punching in the front is to enable shelves to be fitted level with each other when two or more bays are joined together

SHELVING AND OTHER FURNITURE

shelf when filled with books will average approximately half a hundredweight. In tropical countries the use of steel is absolutely essential, the ravages of insects quickly "putting paid" to wooden shelving, unless supplies of teak are available, as in India and Burma. In such cases teak is to be preferred to metal, as experience has proved that extreme heat may cause the steel to buckle. In very moist climates also or in places on the sea coast where excessive mist is prevalent, metal shelving may possibly "sweat" and you should satisfy yourself on this point before launching out with a large order.

Shelving of any material requires to be accessible and adjustable. Fixed shelves have only one advantage—cheapness—and even that is problematical with the price of metal shelving what it is to-day. High shelves prevent quick service, and the use of ladders is an extra fatigue for the staff.

Adjustment at every inch is good enough at the present day when open access and low shelving are customary. Open access means a systematic classification and not arrangement of books according to size, so that however close an adjustment may be allowed in some makes of shelving it is rarely possible to work in an extra shelf into a case, and unless the cost of such a type is reasonably close to that of other makes it is not wise to use money for a very doubtful advantage. The bracket type of stack (Fig. 27) and the standard Steeletta type (Fig. 28) allow of adjustment to 1 inch without shelves having

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

to be entirely unloaded. Whenever required, steel ends and cornices may be fitted to either type and give a finished appearance which adds greatly to the beauty of a stack room and is specially suited for open access rooms (Fig. 21). Again I would refer readers to the catalogues of shelving manufacturers for different makes and patterns, but emphasize here that adjustment on "Tonks'" principles is much to be preferred to the use of bolt and screw shelving; that light-weight shelving should be given preference over heavy stuff, and that ease in erection is a great convenience. Some of the Steeletta shelving in the Library of the London School of Economics has been taken down and re-erected in three different rooms within a period of as many years, and it requires no expert engineer for the purpose. All sheet metal used for shelving should be the best British cold-rolled, and two coats of high temperature baking enamel should be applied as a finish. A substantial base depth should be insisted upon, and in open access libraries it will be found a convenience to readers if the bottom shelf is 18 inches from the floor, while the collecting of dust on the books is progressively reduced as the lowest shelf is raised.

All bolts, screws, and lugs used with metal shelving should be sherardized so that rust cannot possibly affect them.

It is generally considered that gangways 3 feet wide should be allowed for in book stores not open to the public, but many years' experience has convinced me that a 2-foot wide gangway is sufficient

SHELVING AND OTHER FURNITURE

where only the staff have access to the shelves. This is an important consideration, because it allows an extra row of shelving for every 3 feet 6 inches of floor width. Thus a room 50 feet by 40 feet would take eleven double rows of shelving with 2-foot gangways, but only nine rows with approximately 3-foot gangways. Allowing 42-foot run of bookcase in each row, made up of fourteen standard size cases (7 feet 6 inches by 3 feet) with a centre gangway of 4 feet and 2 feet at each end, the two extra rows would provide accommodation for about 11,000 more volumes of average size. Each case will take eight shelves, including the bottom one, which, at 8 volumes to the foot, will give 8 times 24 (3 feet to each shelf) or 192 volumes on each side of a double case. For greater ease in calculating it may be assumed that roughly 200 volumes can be contained in each single case. I have allowed for two separate runs in each row, breaking at the seventh case (21-foot run) each side of the centre gangway. It is not a help to efficient service if the whole row is in one piece, meaning that entry into the next row would only be by means of the gangways at the extreme ends. It may even be advisable in much-used stores to have an additional gangway to facilitate quick service, but normally the one break should suffice. It will be seen that a stack room 50 feet by 40 feet will take eleven double rows of shelving, each containing space for 5,600 volumes, or a total of 61,600 volumes in 2,000 square feet, an average of 30 volumes to

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

the square foot, but this makes no allowance for stairs, doors, working room, etc., and only the minimum of necessary passage-way. Making liberal concessions for all these it may safely be assumed that the minimum accommodation provided will be 25 volumes to the square foot. The room instanced, therefore, can be estimated as capable of holding 50,000 volumes, and if it is 35 feet high will take four floors, giving a maximum capacity in that limited ground area of 200,000 volumes. It must be remembered that if the works to be housed are largely such things as official publications, bound periodicals, or other large size works, each case will only provide six shelves, therefore your estimate must be reduced by one-fourth.

The congestion problem has always been the bugbear of librarians the world over, and one method of providing extra accommodation was by installing rolling stacks, which fitted closely against each other, and could be pulled out when a work was required from them. These rolling stacks are either on rails laid on the floor, as in the Mitchell Library, Glasgow, or else they are run on wheels in sunken channels, as in Bristol University Library. These channels, or gulleys, are dirt traps and are rather apt to lead to injuries to anyone traversing them without due care. It was claimed that these rolling stacks would double the book accommodation, but this has always seemed to me to be an exaggeration, at any rate in the normal stack room. It is obvious that each 3-feet case, fitting end to end, requires

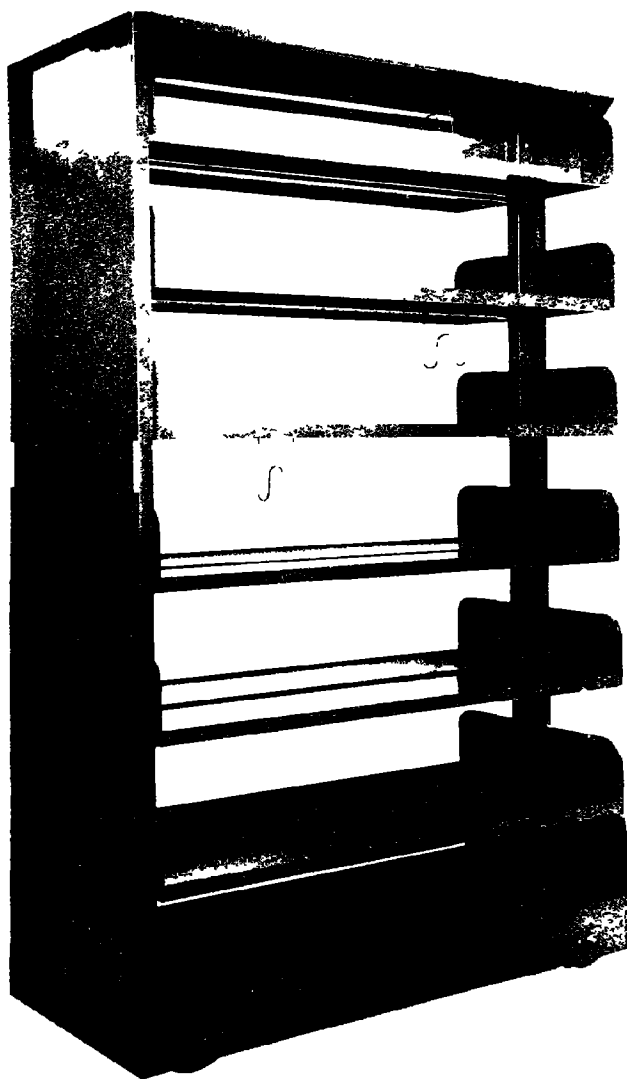


FIG 29 — Snead Rolling Case, with panelled end *[Luxfer]*

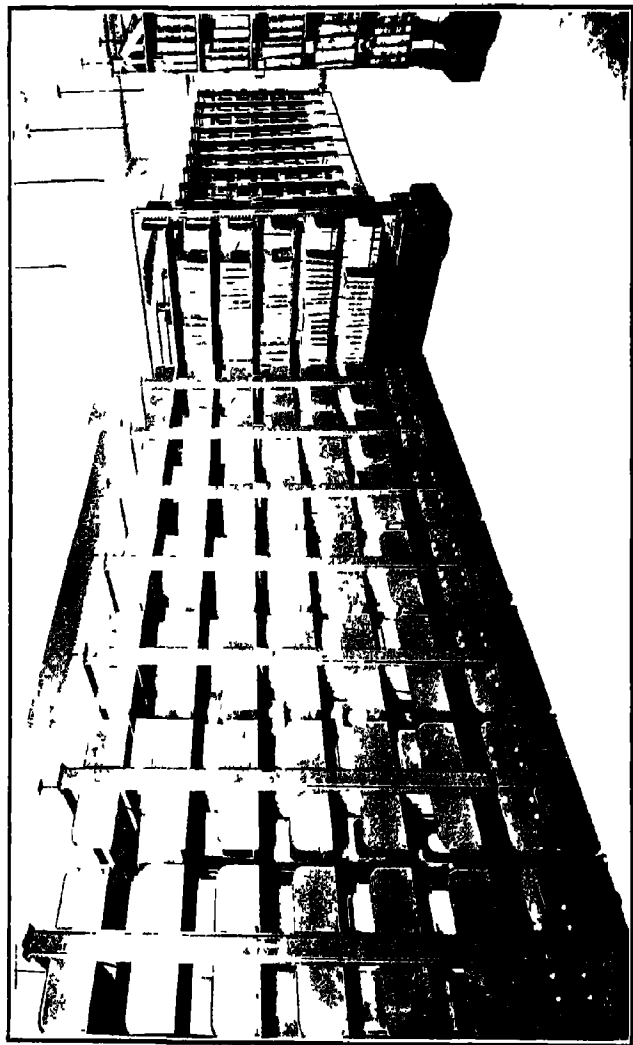


FIG. 30 —Snead Rolling Cases in Toronto Public Library, showing case drawn out for use

Unsefer

SHELVING AND OTHER FURNITURE

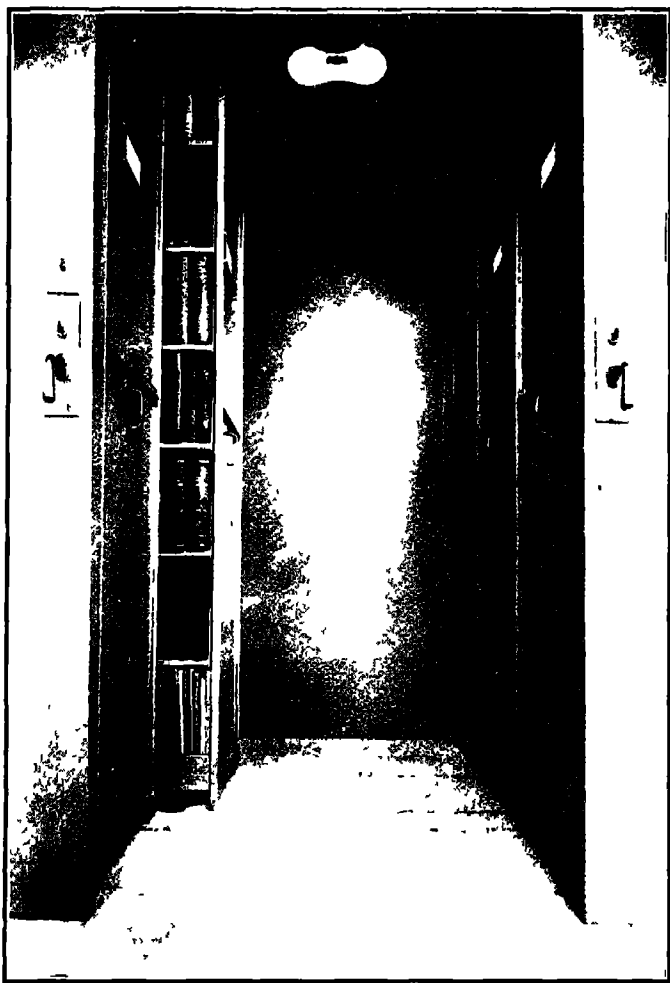
3 feet of gangway when the case is pulled out, therefore the amount of gangway space required is very much more than what is *essential* in the ordinary book store, and a 50 per cent increase is a safer calculation. These rolling cases are also very expensive to install, and in some instances the runners have required attention frequently, absorbing a good deal of a person's time. I have never, until recently, advocated the provision of these cases, not only for the reasons I have given above, but mainly because either method of installation described means the irrevocable fixing in position of the individual cases. The recent introduction of the Snead rolling cases (Figs. 29-30) has altogether altered the position. These cases differ from all others in that they require neither rails, floor tracks, nor overhead supports, thus enabling the maximum room height to be utilized for book storage. The cases are metal stack units mounted on wide tread ball-bearing rollers, and can be used in any room with a hard flooring. Linoleum or cork carpet are not suitable for these stacks to run on, but few book stores would be troubled on this account. The makers' claim that the use of such rolling stacks provides accommodation for 50 per cent more books on a given area may be taken as an accurate statement of the position. It will be noted that these rolling cases may be placed into any position and are easily moved into another if circumstances require it. This is an immense improvement upon earlier kinds, and the fact that their cost is not a great

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

deal more than that of an ordinary stack renders them desirable propositions for any library pressed for shelf room, especially for those works infrequently consulted but yet essential to the stock. As a matter of fact it is possible to have the ordinary book stacks provided in the first instance, and in case of need later on to have them converted into rolling stacks by the simple substitution of the patent under-carriage at a small extra cost. Wide ends and locks may be fitted extending from floor to ceiling, protecting the contents of individual cases or whole rows of them from theft, dust, and fire (Fig. 31). The slightest pull with the finger draws a case into the gangway and the books are easily accessible when wanted.

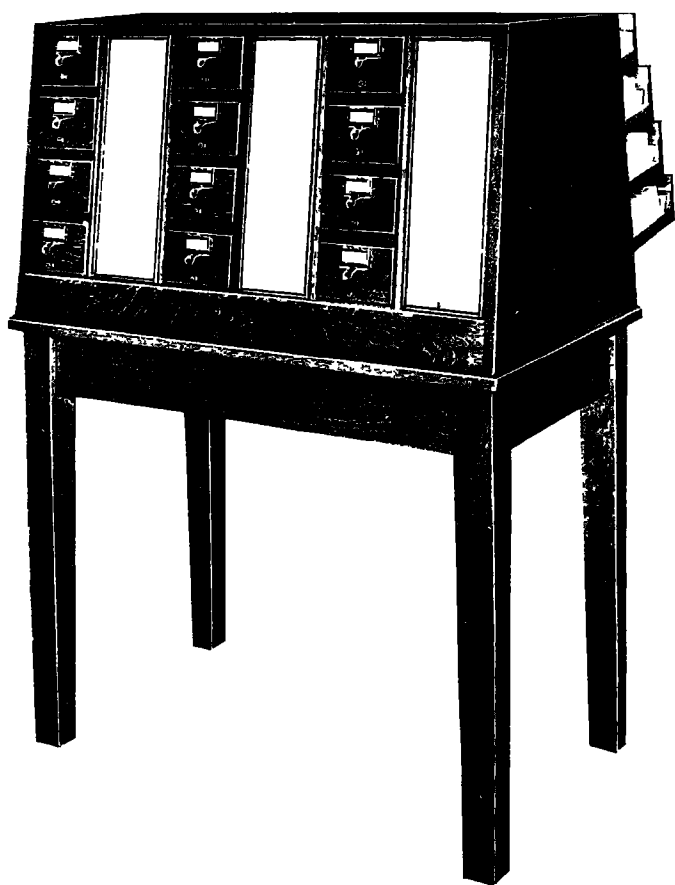
One other point worth mentioning, perhaps, in connection with shelving is that the standard makes, whether in wood or steel, can generally be obtained in units. A single bay requires, of course, two uprights self-supporting. An extension unit requires only one extra upright.

Card catalogue cabinets are to be found in the price lists of all equipment firms, but I would like to emphasize the advantages of the tilted drawer as supplied to the London School of Economics Library (Fig. 32). This particular drawer has two special functions. One is to show each card at the right angle so that *all* the writing on the card is visible without the reader having to squeeze the cards apart, and the other is to enable the drawer to slide back into its place when done with by



[Luxfer

FIG 31 —Sneed Rolling Cases, equipped with wide ends and locks, protecting contents from dust and fire



[*Libraco Ltd*]

FIG. 32 —Two-way Tilted Card Catalogue Cabinet. Twenty-four drawers

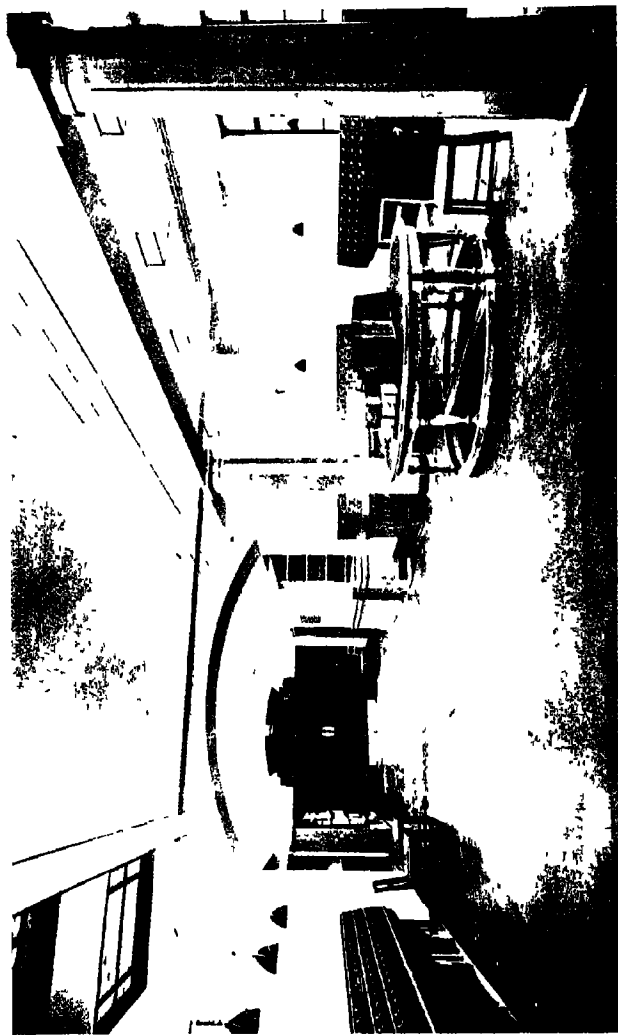
SHELVING AND OTHER FURNITURE

the very slightest pressure.¹ The catalogue lounge at the London School of Economics as illustrated (Fig. 33) contains 237 drawers in 79 rows of three, the idea being to separate consultants as much as possible and to avoid the excessive congestion which is so frequently seen at card cabinets with drawers eight to ten deep. Only one drawer in any row can be consulted at one time, and the more drawers there are piled on top of one another the greater is the likely congestion at the catalogue. Conversely, the greater the *length* of floor space available for the card catalogue, the quicker the service to the reader. The drawers illustrated are in polished oak, with a deep undershelf for large bibliographical works, etc. It is an excellent piece of work and harmonizes with the panelling and other woodwork. I have expressed on an earlier page my opinion of metal card cabinets, but when the catalogue is located in a corridor outside the reading rooms the question of rattle or noise in shutting is not so important, and the saving of space is.

One of the more serious problems for the large library in connection with cataloguing is the necessity for duplication of the entries for use in departmental libraries and in staff rooms. While it is possible to get carbon copies on cards, it is usually found that only two cards can be done at one typing, although by using a stiffish paper instead of a card as top copy three fairly satisfactory copies can be obtained. Electric typewriters are in existence which will do five copies at one typing, and at

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

Frankfurt the Adrema machine is in use. This instrument types on a thin white metal plate the catalogue entries, and from the stencil thus prepared any number of copies may be printed. This is a very satisfactory method when a considerable number of copies is required. The typed plates after use are filed and further copies of the entries can be made at any time. The metal plates can be used over and over again, a punch on the machine being specially provided by means of which the plates are hammered out and the perforations cut filled up again. It is very much the same principle as the ordinary wax stencil sheet. It is in the case of duplicate entries that the Library of Congress central cataloguing scheme proves specially valuable. Any number of copies of the cards required for books published in America may be ordered, but there is room for a machine in this country which at one typing will produce three to six copies each equally satisfactory. The Adrema machine seemed to me to be thoroughly efficient, but it is rather expensive, and comparatively few libraries require sufficient duplicates to justify the provision of such a complete process. Something in the nature of a small hand-printing machine, but done by a keyboard, would find a ready market. There is no question that the card catalogue is the only one which can be kept absolutely up to date in strict order, but many libraries are becoming alarmed at the increasing pressure on floor space as the catalogue grows and the very considerable cost of



[Architect]

FIG 33 —Catalogue Lounge in the entrance corridor of the Library of the London School of Economics, with Tilted Drawer Cabinet, three tiers high only, to distribute consultants

SHELVING AND OTHER FURNITURE

providing cabinets to hold the cards. It is open to question whether the printed catalogue really *costs* more than a card catalogue if everything is taken into consideration. It cannot, of course, be so up to date as the latter, but it is much more convenient to use, any number of copies can be supplied, there is no moving about from drawer to drawer, neither need any reader have to wait until someone has finished with a particular drawer before he can look up his references, and he can take a volume to a comfortable seat and a better light if he desires to. In many libraries, especially in America, a reader is allowed to remove a drawer from the cabinet and take it to a table for perusal, but two particular difficulties have resulted—another inquirer has trouble in locating the particular drawer he wishes to use, and it is found that, seated at a table, the user takes much more time making his references than is essential. The sheaf catalogue has many of the advantages of the printed book, especially in regard to its portability, and, as the entries are made on paper slips, duplication is easier than with cards, but it is not so convenient for keeping up to date, the insertion of new entries generally taking more time than inserting cards, and a good deal of rewriting is frequently necessary. On the other hand many large libraries, such as that of the Palace of Peace at The Hague, and the Picton Reference Library, Liverpool, depend entirely upon it, and the staffs have absolute faith in its merits. It is certainly less costly than a card

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

cabinet system and, naturally, takes up much less space. I would suggest here that frequently cards are used for staff and departmental catalogues when a stout paper slip would suit just as well at one-fourth the cost and space. In fact, any catalogue not for public use can serve its purpose equally well on paper as on card, and in my own experience an index to periodical articles with many thousands of entries on paper slips, some of which were made twenty years ago, shows far fewer signs of wear than many of the card catalogue entries of much more recent birth. I have introduced this catalogue problem because, whatever the choice made, the system will have a considerable influence on the internal planning and arrangements, and the various points above mentioned should be remembered when the space available is being allocated and the expense attached estimated.

Other special equipment which most libraries need is an adequate photo-reproducing machine. It is surprising how few of these are to be found in libraries in this country, but of their great practical utility in many directions there can be no reasonable doubt. If any reader wishes to copy a page of any written or printed material in a library he has usually to transcribe it, frequently at a great sacrifice of time and always with the possibility of error, necessitating again careful checking, especially where extensive statistical tables are concerned, and it is not usually practicable for him to copy a drawing or print at all, while any library possessing

SHELVING AND OTHER FURNITURE

a photostat will readily testify as to its value in replacing missing or damaged pages from its own stock. It is doubtful whether many municipal libraries in the kingdom possess a reproducing machine of this character, but when one realizes the immense number of local documents and tracts available only in single copies it is surprising indeed that this matter has not received due attention. It must be acknowledged that a photostat or similar machine costs £300 or more, but there are few large libraries which would not speedily recover the capital expenditure by the reproduction and sale of scarce literature of local interest and of extracts from the many old and out-of-print works which all possess in some degree or other, in addition to the perfecting of incomplete works in their own collections. It is hardly likely there would be any difficulty in regard to copyright for material copied for the use of the library and not for re-sale, while the question would not arise at all in connection with the first-mentioned literature. The actual cost of a foolscap page of reproduced material is only about threepence, while the price of one shilling normally charged for a copy, supplied in ten minutes or so, would be willingly paid by a person who had several hours of handwriting perhaps as the only alternative. Whole pamphlets reproduced from borrowed copies cost many times less on occasions than copies appearing on the market. One special case we had at the London School of Economics concerned a working men's journal, complete in

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

nine volumes, published many years ago, which was much desired by a large State library on the Continent. The only complete set which could be traced was owned by a private individual who refused to sell it even for a very large sum, but who allowed it to be reproduced in its entirety on the school's photostat. It cost the purchaser more than £200 for the copy, which not only gave a substantial profit on the work to the school, but left it with a perfect set of a work which it did not possess in the shape of the negative (white letters on a black ground) which can be used for as many further copies as may be demanded. There are cheaper things on the market for reproduction purposes, but naturally they do not possess the same qualifications. The photostat types can enlarge or reduce in the copying, while others, like the Luminophor, reproduce original size only. The Luminophor is a glass plate, specially treated to absorb light. When exposed to daylight, or other strong light, this plate becomes active in about five minutes; a special sensitized paper is then placed on the document to be copied, and the Luminophor plate on the back of the sensitized paper. Even pressure on the plate and paper for about three minutes produces a negative which is developed in the usual way to get the perfect copy. The Luminophor plates are supplied in five sizes, the whole set costing about £16. Any number of copies can be made from each negative, and the plates can be used over and over again, it being guaranteed that their activity

SHELVING AND OTHER FURNITURE

will remain at the maximum for at least ten years. For smaller libraries such an instrument forms a reasonably satisfactory substitute for the more costly type.

Rapid progress has been made in recent years in the application of film photography to the reproduction of books and manuscripts. Microphotography as it is called is without question the most suitable method of reproducing printed matter or manuscript when only a few copies are required. Rare and out-of-print books, unpublished catalogues and bibliographies, articles in periodicals are all easy subjects for film photography. Missing pages may be replaced, newspapers and documents of a perishable nature may be made safe for posterity. There are various cameras available for the microphotography of documents; the films are naturally illegible to the unaided. For reading purposes, therefore, visual magnifiers or optical projectors are necessary. The different methods and instruments in vogue are described in the Proceedings of the Conference of the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux, 1937 to 1939.

The latest reading machines are provided with variable magnification, but they are expensive and, at present, there is no really simple and inexpensive reader available for the average library. Microphotography has made rapid progress in America, and more than fifty newspapers in the United States now

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

offer microfilm editions. European countries are increasingly interesting themselves in the problem, but, largely for financial reasons, are somewhat timid in their activities. It is, however, to be noted that Germany, at the commencement of the war, was embarking on an ambitious scheme for providing about 600 libraries each with a microfilm camera and projector, the necessary apparatus to be rented to the libraries concerned.

As far as libraries are concerned their main function is their ability to reproduce whole books or single illustrations into the small compass of a film or roll of films, and their introduction will go a long way to reduce congestion on shelves. For instance, there are many fat volumes on library shelves, taking up a lot of room, and often containing only a single chapter of real use in the library concerned. Their replacement by films, two hundred rolls of which take up the room of an ordinary volume only, will release a lot of space. Often, too, valuable and rare pamphlets are asked for on loan by other libraries and cannot be supplied because of the risk of loss or damage in transit. The filming of these will enable any request to be granted without anxiety, and several copies at a time if necessary. Not only is the postage on each film that of an ordinary letter, but should a copy be lost it is easily replaced from the negative in the possession of the loaning library.) It is not even essential that the

SHELVING AND OTHER FURNITURE

borrowing library shall possess a projector lantern, as it is generally possible to hire a cinema lantern of some sort which will serve the purpose.

The photostat reproduction is the suitable thing when a facsimile of a work is required for ordinary library use, and it is usual nowadays in some libraries to have facsimile copies of valuable books and pamphlets on the shelves and to keep in special custody the originals. The actual cost of a two-page opening of an octavo volume in facsimile is about threepence all told, while larger sizes will cost more. The outside limit of a photostatic reprint will be about 18 inches by 12 inches, but it is possible to reduce the size of the copy required and so save shelf space. The printing, however, can only be done on one side of the paper copy, so that you get two blank pages between two printed ones when reproducing a number of successive pages, or, if cut up, one printed page and a blank reverse. The film reproductions cost about one penny each on the average, so for particular purposes, as enumerated above, they are much less expensive than the photostat reproductions. These figures apply only to the institution possessing its own machines. Material sent out for copying costs about four times the price given for photostat, and double the price for film reproductions. This is a very bald estimate and I only give it because one of the first questions put to me always when I have spoken about these

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

machines has reference to the comparative cost of each method.

The Sub-committee on Film Photography appointed by the Institute of Historical Research has recommended that the most effective development of the use of film microphotography for the reproduction of books and manuscripts will be secured by the general adoption of standard measurements and forms, and to this end it is necessary that there should be established a central body which should be equipped with the most up-to-date apparatus, and be in a position to afford individual customers a rapid and efficient supply of film either by photography upon its own premises or at libraries not themselves able to supply film, and to form a library of master-films. In reality it would be a clearing-house for microphotography work, dependent for its success upon the co-operation of libraries and societies.

There is no space to spare in this volume for describing the thousand and one items of equipment in more or less general use. I have tried to bring to notice some of the newer and comparatively unknown things which *ought* to receive due consideration. Such a thing as the pneumatic tube, often used in big stores for conveying cash from all departments to a central cashier's box, is a most useful instrument for sending application forms to the stack rooms when lifts or conveyors are

SHELVING AND OTHER FURNITURE

not practicable. Filing-cars, as they are called in America, are desks on casters with a small table and a chair on a swivel, used for the daily filing of catalogue cards, and save the vast amount of fatigue and delay caused by having constantly to shift one's place and materials when moving from one drawer to another. Perhaps, also, we shall make acquaintance in this country soon with the "Dexigraph." This is a new machine installed at Yale University Library for the purpose of making several copies of the catalogue as quickly as possible for the great new building. The old catalogue cards were arranged in piles and then slipped one by one under the reflecting prism of a photographic camera, a roll of paper being mechanically brought forward at the same time. Each card received an exposure of one-fifth of a second, and the entire roll of negatives was developed and fixed at one time, the cards then being automatically punched out in the normal size. This machine, operated by two people, could produce ten thousand cards a day. The negatives, of course, made up a "black catalogue," the entries being in white on a black ground. The catalogue has apparently proved most serviceable and at any rate it does not show up the finger-marks on much-used cards, as is the result of other photographic methods.

CHAPTER XV

SPECIAL PROBLEMS OF UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE LIBRARIES: DEPARTMENTAL LIBRARIES, SEMINAR LIBRARIES, CARRELS, CENTRAL CONTROL, Etc.

The various factors of planning and equipment already stated in this work are generally applicable to libraries of all kinds, but the university library has usually to plan on a larger scale, and problems have to be solved which are peculiarly its own. Emphasis should be given in planning the university library to possibilities of extension, internal adaptability, economical storage—generally best obtained by the book tower on the vertical plan, —ample room at the main service station, and the location of the catalogue room and inquiry desk outside the reading rooms. At the same time the latter should be placed as near as possible to the books, so that delay and waste of time are reduced to the very minimum possible. Catalogue rooms should be planned to allow of 100 per cent expansion, and the window surface in reading rooms should reach 25 per cent of the floor space. All kinds of special rooms may have to be provided. /

Possibly the most contentious problem for

UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE LIBRARIES

university librarians is that of the departmental library. There are two special aspects of the question—the department located in another building than that including the main library, and the department housed within the same building. Librarians are faced with the demand from the first-mentioned department that it should have its own library and its own special grant for books and maintenance, frequently also with the expressed desire that the use of the library should be confined to members of that department only. In the second instance the department clamours for its special grant for books and the liberty to spend it in its own way, coupled sometimes with the demand that books within its special sphere located in the main library stock should be housed in the departmental library. Where it has been customary for departments to be given these facilities it is not easy for the librarian to effect a change. The librarian has to recognize that members of a faculty will do the best work and teaching only when relatively free from irritation and restriction, and he must wait his time for the proper moment, rather than slow up the work of the department by an abrupt demand for a curtailment of what the department has hitherto considered its prerogatives, unless these are seriously interfering with the rights and needs of other departments. Departmentalization of libraries on the above lines is unnecessary and undesirable. It must be remembered that on the humanist side all knowledge is a unit and there is far too much

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

overlapping of interests nowadays to justify the separate self-contained departmental library. Less and less is it possible to take up a particular book and declare that it is a book which interests one section of knowledge only. No one looking at the question of the departmental library from an institutional point of view can favour it. Those who do so are considering only their personal convenience. In the United States the matter has been thoroughly fought out in recent years and great universities like Illinois and Michigan with many others have realized that centralization of library work results in most use and least duplication of material. Whether the department is in a building isolated from the main library or situated within the same building, there should be no independent control. It is obvious that it would be folly to expect people attached to a department situated some distance from the main university library to do all their reading in the latter, but the library of the department should be considered a part of the general library, it should have no separate funds for books, all of which should be purchased through the chief librarian's department. The practice of making a special grant to be spent by the department on books for its own use is wasteful and extravagant, unless the money is spent through the main library. Unnecessary duplication is bound to result, variations in cataloguing and classification practice are inevitable, and shelf accommodation has to be provided to an extent not really essential.

UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE LIBRARIES

Under a centralized system every facility required by a department can be given, unnecessary duplication avoided, uniformity in cataloguing and classification ensured, and economy in administration and equipment made certain. The books wanted for the department will be the choice of the latter, but the buying will be the task of the chief librarian, who should be given authority to transfer books to departments whenever such a course is not likely to be detrimental to central users. The university librarian should have the responsible administration of all libraries within the university, each of which should be staffed from the general library. In this way a unified library service is woven for the entire institution.

As regards departmental libraries within the main building, there should be no departmentalization except for duplicates. In other words there should be no book in a departmental library which is not in the main library. All research materials and books and documents for advanced students should go into the central library. As a prominent American professor remarked, "Before our books were centralized one frequently had to search in five or six departmental libraries for a desired publication." It will be seen that in many cases the central library of the university or college does not possess even a catalogue of its departmental libraries, and the amount of money spent on duplicate copies, which would not be required under a centralized system, is surprisingly large. All books

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

should be catalogued in the general catalogue of the university, and duplicate cards made for books which are in more than one of the libraries. The reader requiring a particular work will see at a glance whether it is in the library, no matter where copies may be located. Books considered to be in no great demand may be shelved in a departmental library if of greater utility there, but, if in the general catalogue, it will always be available for an inquirer, while at the same time the departmental library is having its special need met. It is not generally advisable or economical to allocate specific sums for books to particular departments, even if all purchases are made by the chief librarian. It not infrequently happens that a department with a stated book fund will spend the whole, although the requirements of the department may not really demand it. Except in special cases the library's allocation for books and periodicals should be one sum sufficient to cover the needs of all sections. A representative committee from all departments can be trusted to see that each has its rightful share of the money available, and ordering and invoicing are reduced to a minimum. As a matter of fact the new discount arrangements with the booksellers renders it all the more desirable for purchasing to be centralized, as generally the institution as a whole would be represented in the membership of the Library Association, and not individual departments. Presumably the latter would not be able to take advantage of the net book agreement.

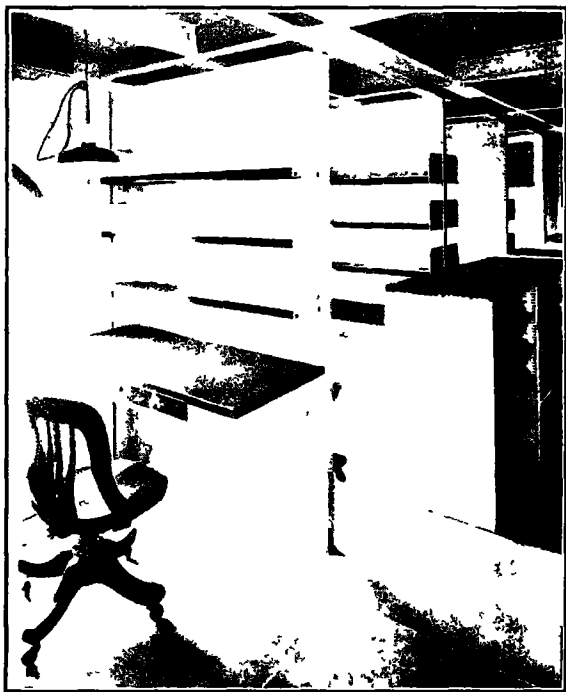
UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE LIBRARIES

It is clear that somewhat different rules must apply to the faculty library established away from the main library. Duplication must be on a larger scale, as certain types of book may be equally in demand in more than one place, while certain very specialized works, such as medical treatises or advanced works in chemistry, may not justly be claimed for the general library as well as the sectional one, the latter being the obvious place for such works. This is a matter for agreement between those concerned; but the general library catalogue should have entries of every work, and demand will soon determine whether duplication is necessary or not.

Seminar libraries are even more restricted than departmental libraries in their use. They usually consist of a small reading room and a limited amount of shelf accommodation, and are usually available only to third-year students or those doing advanced research. Direct control by the library staff is not usually necessary or practicable. Each person entitled to use the seminar library is registered, and a key to the room is supplied to each one. It may be necessary to levy a deposit charge of ten shillings per session, and to have an understanding that books missing from the seminar library which have to be replaced will be a charge against this deposit fund, the members of the seminar being asked to make themselves responsible jointly for the proper use of the library and its contents. Whenever it is practicable the entry to

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

these seminar libraries should be through the main library control. The stock of books in the seminar libraries should be absolute duplicates of those in the general library, the real function of the seminar library really being to provide opportunity for discussion and facilities for smoking in a less busy atmosphere than that of the general library. Facilities should be provided enabling books not in constant demand in the general library to be temporarily borrowed, under voucher, for reading in the seminar libraries, but returnable each day to the main library. These seminar libraries will usually be furnished with lounge chairs and individual tables, making the room a sort of comfortable drawing room. These matters require settlement when planning the library, and as far as possible all departmental and seminar libraries should converge directly on to the main library and as near their special divisions in the stock of the latter as can be arranged, in order to reduce to a minimum time lost in transit. Apart from the suggestions given above, as much central control as can be provided is necessary for these special departments. Rigid control at exits, the prohibition of attaché cases and coats with large pockets within a reading room, and a "show" of all books carried out of the library are vitally necessary if infringements of the regulations are to be prevented. One cannot, unfortunately, depend upon the good faith of the users of the library. Without it no library can be sure of giving the utmost service unless rigid



[Inset]

FIG. 34—Study Carrels and Low Cases in Yale University

UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE LIBRARIES

safeguards are instituted.) Although at least one university library I know has felt compelled to install turnstiles at the library exits, it is well to do without these suggestions of dishonest practice. A human barrier in the form of a discreet janitor will be just as effective as a barrier of iron and will more efficiently disguise his functions.

\ The most exclusive department of all is the carrel, or research stall, as it is called in the London School of Economics. Occasionally one hears of "cubicle" in this connection, but the word suggests rather a plank bed in an institution and is not one to be commended for our purpose. Harvard University Library provided a large number of carrels in 1915 and they have grown in favour continually since. No university library can afford to do without them in future. Some of the newer universities in America have three or four hundred provided, usually in the form of partitioned-off bookcases, with low cases on the gangway side of the carrel, making a special private study compartment, particularly well adapted to post-graduate research work (Fig. 34). Each carrel averages about 6 feet by 4 feet, and is fitted with a writing table, chair, reading lamp, and either a cupboard or set of drawers in which the reader may lock up his manuscripts or other non-library material which he requires for his studies. X

In reality a carrel takes up very little more space than would have to be provided for such readers as use them in an ordinary reference room. The

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

research stalls in the London School of Economics (Fig. 35) only amount to twenty-three in number, but the demand for them is much greater than can at present be satisfied. The stalls consist of solid oak partitions, 6 feet high, and the enclosure for each reader is 6 feet long by 4 feet wide. Each is separated from the main passage-way by a double-sided "Steeletta" bookcase, enamelled geranium red. The inside of the case, which measures 6 feet by 3 feet, has four shelves for the books which the occupier of the carrel is using, and the gangway side of the shelves contains general reference works. The bottom part of the case is a cupboard 3 feet long and 18 inches deep, with double doors on the inside for the private papers and non-library material of the reader. Each reader has the street window on his left, from which he gets adequate natural lighting, and a bracket electric lamp, adjustable to any height or direction, provides efficient illumination after dark. Four of these stalls are entirely enclosed by glazed partitions carried up to the ceiling. These meet the demand which frequently arises when a reader requires to dictate to a typist, or when a blind student wishes someone to read aloud to him, and such cases can be accommodated without serious inconvenience to other students. Entrance to and exit from the room taken up by these research stalls is only possible to readers through the main library entrance, and they are subject to the same regulations prohibiting the bringing in to the



[Sleeve left]
 FIG 35 —Research Stalls, or Carrels, at the London School of Economics, showing lock-up cupboards enamelled pillar-box red, with limed-oak partitions The "Polecon" Shelf Hand Lamp is also seen attached to each case

UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE LIBRARIES

library of attaché cases or coats as other readers in the library. The Snead conveyor serves these stalls, and any occupant desiring a book from the general library simply fills in an application form and places it in one of the conveyor baskets which delivers the form at the central control. The work required is then despatched via the conveyor, the button corresponding to the research stall room is pressed, and the book is turned out into the receiving bag within close proximity of the reader, who in turn places the book when done with in the basket again and it is turned out automatically at the central control station, the registration form is cancelled, and the book sent by the conveyor to its final location. By means of the special locking device in the conveyor mechanism (Fig. 24) a member of the staff provided with a small key is able to despatch books to any other station from the research stalls, but readers are naturally not given facilities to manipulate the conveyor, but can only *send* forms or books to the central control station, nothing else being done except to place the materials in the basket. Librarians look upon the provision of carrels with somewhat mixed feelings. They realize that to have a large number of students placed among the book stacks, the majority of which will be accessible to the readers, is not an unmixed blessing, and misplacings and losses may very easily follow and access to the stacks become abused. But it is to be remembered that only readers carrying out approved research are given the

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

privilege of using a carrel, and centralized entrance and exit and the "show" of any books or material the reader has with him should be effectual in preventing losses, while the threat to withdraw the privilege from any reader abusing the facilities of the carrel should prevent any serious disorder or misuse of the books in the stacks. For the serious research student the carrel is undoubtedly a great boon. He has what is really a private room—something much superior to a place with others in a reading room. He has his reserved books in his carrel, and in the stacks just outside it the majority of the other works dealing with his particular subject, to which he has unhindered access. To the student the carrel is probably the most popular innovation in libraries during the last twenty years. There are, of course, some disadvantages to be noted. In American libraries in particular the stacks may be a long way from the general reading room and the catalogues of the library. Other sections of the stock required by a reader may be situated at some distance from the immediate subject at which he is working, and an examination of the shelves will not in itself tell him everything the library has likely to be of use to him—composite works and those in use by other readers—and consultation of the catalogue at frequent intervals is a necessity. The greater the stock of books the larger does this side of the problem appear to be. Despite these difficulties no one who has had the privilege of a carrel deems them

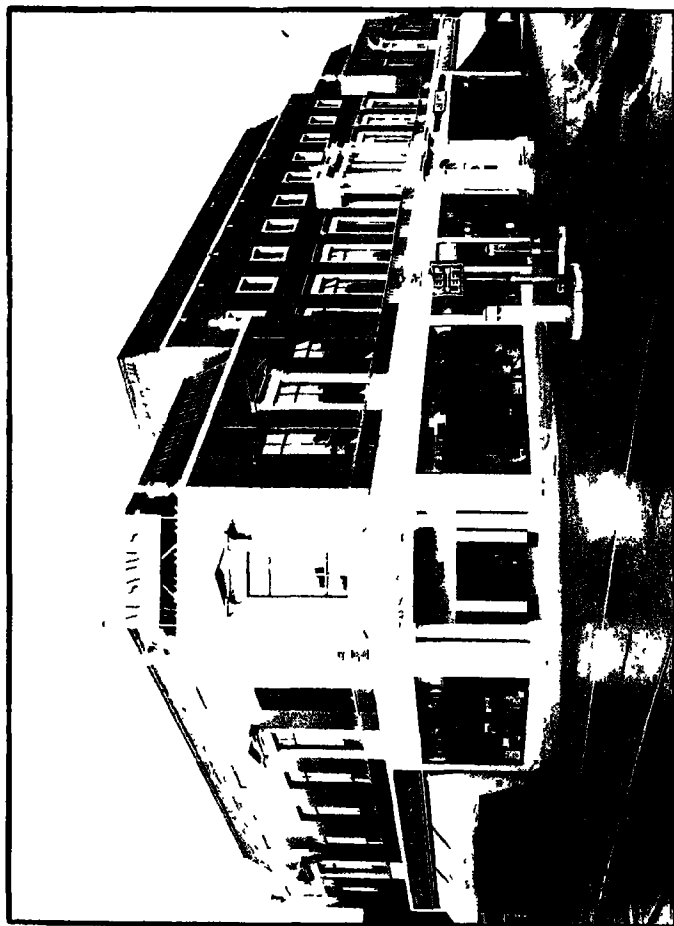
UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE LIBRARIES

to be any great handicap compared with the very considerable advantages afforded.

So far as other rooms in a university library are concerned the general principles I have already enumerated apply in a generally larger scale. Every effort should be made to ensure that books received into the library proceed stage by stage in their preparation in a forward direction only, each stage bringing the book nearer its final resting-place, and not forward and then backward or up and down and up again. It is obvious that each library has its own particular requirements, its opportunities and limitations, but the librarian equipped with the knowledge of what is desirable and possible and who is familiar with the factors and data covering every feature of his requirements is a long way on the road to producing a building in which the equipment and accessories are properly co-ordinated, leaving it to the architect to round off the rough edges and to simplify and beautify the whole without interfering with the utility and practical value of the scheme, whether it is a single room or a vast building which is contemplated. A competent librarian should be available at the beginning of all library planning, and no committee and no architect can afford to ignore his advice and suggestions. The first consideration for a successful building is that it should be satisfactory from the utilitarian viewpoint, and the second that within that viewpoint it is aesthetically sound. All librarians should realize that their criticisms should be confined to

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

practical arrangements and not to architectural details, and, conversely, architects must recognize that the ideas of a competent librarian in regard to working arrangements must receive the fullest consideration.



THE LEYTONSTONE BRANCH LIBRARY AND THE NEW BROTHERTON LIBRARY

An unusual idea of a library above a parade of shops, resulting in the best possible site, with generous accommodation for all public service departments on *one* floor. As the rents of the ground-level shops produce an income more than sufficient to cover all outgoings the Leyton Libraries Committee received, practically as a gift, a more commodious building on a more convenient site than is normally the case with branch libraries, and the shopkeepers of adjacent premises gave the scheme a warm welcome. The idea is one for serious consideration in all cases where the matter of branches is to be decided. Whether or no the two or three thousand daily visitors to the immediate area of the library come to do their shopping and are thus attracted to the library, or visitors to the library have their attention drawn to the goods displayed in the shops is immaterial. Publicity to the whole section results. An account of the building is given in full in the *Library Association Record* for February, 1935, pp. 48-57.

A description of the Brotherton Library, by Dr. Offor, Librarian of the University of Leeds, is given in the *Library Association Record*, vol. 38, 1936, pp. 501-6. The illustrations give an excellent idea of the effect of the large ornamental pillars,

which reduce considerably the amount of space available for shelving and reading accommodation, not only on account of the space actually occupied by the columns, but also because the designers required large spaces horizontally and vertically in order to display to the full the beauty of the columns. It is obvious, too, that, although the natural lighting is not very much reduced by the columns, supervision is naturally made more difficult. The question arises—Here is a fine circular reading room easily accessible from all departments of the University—would anybody have cried out for beautiful columns had they not been provided, and would not readers and staff have been better served if there had been no limitation of space, light, and supervision such as results from the preponderance of aesthetic influences?

BOOK SELECTION IN
THEORY AND PRACTICE

It is not the purpose of this chapter to set out the various sources which are available to the librarian who wishes to discover what has been published in the world of books, and which books are individually suitable for his library. (It is the attitude of librarians and committees to book selection which I want to discuss,) and in particular the partisan view, whether in regard to religion, politics, sensational or "suspect" fiction, which has provided some extraordinary evidence in recent years of what some people consider to be their special function as members of a library committee. (It is in connection with public libraries that this problem is so acute. The university librarian, as we shall see later, has little worry about this aspect of the question.)

First of all, then, let us consider the general principles which should influence the librarian of the public library in getting together his stock of books. The size of the district or library does not affect to any degree the validity of these principles. The character of the community, the standard of education, the occupations of the inhabitants, naturally influence the librarian's outlook. He has to consider the desires of the community as well as its needs, and although he will easily ascertain the

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

former he is not so well informed regarding the latter. The demands of the reader cannot be disregarded. No library will suffer from a surfeit of borrowers if it is content to supply books which it is considered borrowers *ought* to read and nothing else. However skilfully such a selection was made it would not appeal to the masses. On the other hand if the demands of the community are entirely met it is probable that the standard of literature on the shelves would be undesirably low as a whole, and would contribute nothing to the carrying out of the real purpose of the library. It must be remembered that the average taste in literature is not as high as it should be, or might be, and the librarian who realizes that large numbers of his readers regard the substance of a book as more important than its manner, and like plenty of action simply and clearly expressed, will not refuse to satisfy his clients, but will rather endeavour to humour them by supplying not necessarily all the works demanded or even any of them, but such as he feels will meet the reader's wants and yet be good literature. Especially will this attitude be necessary and wise in regard to narrative literature or, as we like to call it, fiction, the most readable form of narrative. The high percentage of issues of works of narrative fiction is not due to one cause alone as frequently implied—that people will not read anything else. The writers of fiction have as their first motive the intention to entertain readers—frequently nothing else. The writers of history and science, biography

BOOK SELECTION IN THEORY & PRACTICE

and travel have first of all to consider accuracy, the idea of entertaining the reader being generally a secondary consideration, although occasionally one meets the book which has the double merit, and when such does come to hand it suggests that there is no real reason why many others of a like character are not written. Most readers do not care very much whether events in a novel really happened or not. They are looking for entertainment and know that as a general rule it will be obtained from the fiction class and not another. But the classes of books borrowed do not necessarily have any relation to the actual time spent on reading books in each class. Because a particular library's fiction issues amount to 75 per cent of the total in a given year, it does not mean that three-fourths of the borrowers' reading-time has been devoted to novel reading. Most libraries issue extra tickets to borrowers available for non-fiction—or rather works in the non-fiction classes. This is a very necessary differentiation. I am the last person in the world to suggest that non-fiction class means nothing but the truth is included therein. Again, many readers buy books from time to time and generally will buy literature of some permanent value as such—and wisely so—borrowing fiction and buying the more solid literature. It is perfectly certain that if a calculation could be made of the *time* spent by readers on novels and non-novels the percentage on the former would not be 75 per cent, but in all probability less than 50 per cent. It must not be assumed, either, that

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

it is in the poorer districts that this "unhealthy consumption of demoralizing fiction" is most in evidence, for although statistics are not easy to obtain, those which are available suggest the contrary position. In New York, for example, which on all counts is no better than London or any other large English town, three libraries in what compares with our East End showed a fiction class percentage respectively of 48, 51, and 60, while three libraries in districts corresponding to our West End showed 69, 70, and 71 respectively. It is usually regarded as a sign that the labouring classes have a greater desire for the acquisition of useful information than their better-off neighbours. It would be a mistake to generalize from the few facts available. It could readily be argued that, in the instances quoted above, the West End inhabitants can afford to buy *all* the non-fiction they want and need only to borrow the light literature which they have no desire to own. Further, the novel is the prevailing mode of literary expression to-day. It is the vehicle which writers *must* use if they wish to convey the facts about things which affect the daily life of the masses—economic, political, social, legal, historical or religious—to the maximum number of readers. More and more is it essential that everyone should understand aright the abstract theories or practical values of every side of thought and science. To expect the average man in the street to read serious and heavy works in scientific language on these many problems is too much, and the one way to

BOOK SELECTION IN THEORY & PRACTICE

make him understand and think about them is to give him the pills well sugared. Entertain him first—thrill him—and he will swallow the philosophy at the same time and talk about it afterwards. Is it not true to say that some of the most needed reforms in this country were the result of the publication of facts in great works of fiction? Did not *Valentine Vox* lead to an immense improvement in the treatment of the inmates of the asylums, and *It is Never too Late to Mend* was Charles Reade's method of bringing home the facts relating to prison life to thousands of the public who otherwise would probably have remained ignorant of them and untroubled, and the reforms introduced may not have been forthcoming for a long time. Of the influence of Dickens' novels on our knowledge of social life in different directions there is no need to speak. Which of us has not had to acknowledge that he would have been ignorant of such circumstances if they had not been exposed by the novels of Charles Dickens? The problems of to-day are somewhat different, but the need of thought and action is still as great. Of course, in dealing with life at the present day an author has to take things as they really are if he is to represent humanity accurately, and it is necessary sometimes to say unpleasant things and to introduce people who are not nice. Hence the disturbance caused sometimes in the minds of the ultra-pure folk by the circulation of literature which is disagreeable to such minds. But that fact is no reason at all for the prohibition

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

in public libraries of many authoritative works. It has got to be remembered that life has its dustbins as well as its drawing rooms and only an inaccurate picture can be drawn if the latter are to be the only apartments entered. The book which is written with no other object but to pander to obscene minds is fortunately rather rare in this country and its presence will always be announced by its smell, but there are many cases of books which nineteen out of twenty members of a committee will thoroughly approve, and the odd one will be rampant against them because he has been told or rumour has suggested or he himself by some freak of nature has originated an idea that some passage in a work can be construed after microscopical examination to mean something unpleasant. Unfortunately that twentieth part of a committee frequently by its fulminations frightens the remaining nineteen-twentieths so much that it gives way to the attack and the book is forbidden. It is often the same in regard to works of a political or scientific character. Because the views expressed are not approved by the majority of the committee they are turned down, however clever the expositions contained in them. There is a particularly glaring case within my own experience when a work by H. G. Wells suggested by two readers for addition to a library was banned because the chairman of the committee loathed H. G. Wells and had given instructions that none of that writer's works should be purchased for the library. Recent legislation may

BOOK SELECTION IN THEORY & PRACTICE

make committees even more antagonistic to the representation of literature with extreme political views, claiming as a reason the danger to a library which possesses works which might possibly be considered seditious. Sedition itself is almost indefinable. You may possess in your library works containing the text of the communist manifesto of 1847 and run no risk, but if you selected certain passages from the manifesto and circulated them alone the law would almost certainly be set in motion against you. Even such a thing as the American Declaration of Independence contains passages which would be prohibited from circulation if printed separately. In fact the Declaration itself was banned from the Philippine Islands years ago, when the United States were striving for the mastery of the government there, because no stronger argument could have been used by the natives against the proposed new constitution than certain fragments from the document which is the foundation of the United States Government to-day. (My whole point is that no work which is an authoritative treatise in its particular field, whether art, religion, politics, or life itself, should be prohibited from a public library simply because it uses language which, in other senses, might be considered immoral or tainted or extreme.) Works which come under the latter qualification and represent nothing and no one else will not be recommended by a competent librarian and, in fact, will probably have a short life or no life at all. Works definitely representing

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

a school of thought or point of view, even if outspoken and candid, are hardly likely to appeal to the lovers of the indelicate, but advertise them by publicly denouncing them in committee or council and all the sensuous fanatics will tumble over each other in order to get hold of the work by fair means or foul. Add it to the library and place it in its proper location with its subject, without the declamation regarding its contents, and it will be read only by those who are interested in the scientific side of its problems and in no other. This question of censorship by committees has been particularly prominent since the publication of certain war books, recognized by those who know as being true and frank descriptions of things as they really were. Take, for instance, Remarque's *All Quiet on the Western Front*. Surely a remarkable analysis of war and all that it involves, and one of the most powerful pieces of propaganda for world peace ever issued. A certain large town in the Midlands was without a solitary copy in its public library, "by order of the committee," while a borough in the East End of London reported that although twenty-six copies of the work were in the library the demand for it was so great that further copies were being obtained. More harm than good was done by the action of the Midland body. The whole Press of the country singled it out for prominent announcement and comment and many a perverted mind was directed to further nourishment thereby. We ought to assume that the East End district

BOOK SELECTION IN THEORY & PRACTICE

in the case is by now a hotbed of vice and all that is nasty, and the Midland one pure and guileless by comparison, but the only statistics which bear on the subject give evidence that war at any rate has fewer supporters in the former than in the latter. Here again it is a case of the proper attitude toward the subject. War is not a producer of heroes only, as most books in the past were content to state, and the real facts concerning it as related in so many works since 1914 are anathema to those ardent patriots who make war a glorious thing. In my young days no one writer fascinated me more than G. A. Henty, whose heroes did marvelously heroic things and came through them all unscathed. The more human beings there were killed in a battle the more glorious the victory; the more lives extinguished by the hand of the hero so much the greater hero was he. Things have altered since the war and the type of story offered to young people with them. Writers have discovered that there is plenty of adventure and heroism to be derived from the sea, from the mines, from travel and from the air without stressing the military aspect of any.

(Who is to be responsible for the selection of books for the public library? It is obvious that the ultimate authority in all matters of expenditure must be the committee, but the person who knows most about the needs and tastes of the readers is the librarian and he is also the person whose special duty it is to make a study of the publications of

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

the present and the past, and whose knowledge of bibliographies and sources is not usually equalled by any body of people comprising the library committee. Naturally he will be guided by any member having a special acquaintance with a particular literature, but he is less likely to possess bias or prejudice so far as books are concerned. Therefore, if the librarian knows his business (and he should not be librarian if he does not) the committee's action in regard to book selection should be merely that of ratification. The librarian will be the first to realize that no one person can be omniscient and he will gladly make use of information and suggestion from others. Requests from readers, personal knowledge of the reader and his environment, intuition, the amount of money available, will be among the qualifications he can bring to the problem. He will try to have personal touch with outside experts in the literature of special subjects and will know what catalogues and reviews may be useful and authoritative, and as a final aid to decision will have books on approval or will personally inspect them in shops and libraries, bearing in mind that incorrect statement and bad treatment disqualify books from representation on his shelves, and fiction requires something more than demand to justify its purchase.

Personally I strongly advocate that, as a general rule, no attempt should be made to buy any novel within six months after publication. There may occasionally be an exception which proves the rule,

BOOK SELECTION IN THEORY & PRACTICE

but in my opinion the function of the library in connection with fiction is to have an adequate supply of the best fiction and not to cater for the individual who wants every novel immediately on publication. There are more reasons than one for taking this attitude. In the first place almost every work of fiction is obtainable from most libraries six months after issue at half-price or less, which means that two books can be bought for the price of one new one. Secondly, it is not usually possible to assess the worth of any novel until a period has elapsed after publication. A sensation of the moment may have no permanent interest or even literary value. Thirdly, it is not possible for public libraries to supply sufficient copies to cope with the craze of the moment. After all, any really good novel is just as interesting to the person who has not read it six months late as when it first appeared. Even then it may be necessary to duplicate a work and in the United States it is customary to get an extra copy of any work for every ten names on the demand list. An excellent practice widely adopted in America is the formation of a duplicate pay collection, really a sort of "twopenny library" within the institution. A small charge is made (from about twopence a week in some cases to as much as sixpence in others) and the money received is devoted to the purchase of extra copies of works already in the library stock. This enables a demand to be better met and also proves an attraction to the fastidious reader who has an awful fear of

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

infection and other ills which are supposed to lurk within the covers of used books on the shelves of the public department. These books are ultimately transferred to the ordinary library stock. It is not altogether a democratic idea and it rather encourages class distinction. At the same time it is an obvious benefit to the library's stock of books, and the fact that only duplicates of the latter may be added to the "pay" collection is a guarantee that undesirable literature will not be circulated from the library and also brings the idea within the limits of the law. There seems every advantage in introducing such a scheme into the libraries of this country, and I cannot see how it could be considered illegal.

I do not wish it to be inferred from what I have said above that if you leave the selection to the librarian you can be sure of getting the right thing and that only every time. I think a great deal more attention should be given to that class of fiction usually called "thrillers" or "crook" stories. In regard to the latter, "crooks" are part of our society and rightly have a place in fiction, but, even so, there are works which are so grossly impossible and dangerous that they should be excluded. Far more harm is done by certain books of this kind than by most of those dropped on by the pure in mind, who will stagger at the suggestion of a D. H. Lawrence story, but will approve without comment certain works wherein the "crook" ridicules monarch and police, commits almost every conceivable crime, and bests the authorities on

BOOK SELECTION IN THEORY & PRACTICE

every occasion, to the authors' evident delight. Every act of the "hero" is made a glorious thing. Many works of this kind can be found in the catalogues of most libraries, but I suggest that their prohibition would be a really beneficial censorship. They are not to be compared with other famous novels, such as *Sherlock Holmes*, or *Arsene Lupin*. In the latter case the author has a desperate character to deal with, but there is no attempt to bring ridicule on the authorities of the law, no patronizing of royalty, and the "hero" in the end really sees the error of his ways and is sorry for his misdeeds.

Perhaps I might add here a suggestion or two regarding the selection of literature for children. Morally bad books obviously ought not to be chosen, but some people would exclude such works as *Tom Sawyer* and *Huckleberry Finn* but would include *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. My personal feelings would prompt me to include Mark Twain's immortal pair, but not the famous work by Harriet Beecher Stowe. It has no great literary value, but achieved its fame entirely on account of her vivid story of the brutal and inhuman treatment of the negroes in 1852, nearly ten years before the question led to the war between North and South. I do not think a work filled with accounts of death and suffering is one to be advocated to be read by young people, but should be reserved until readers have reached a less impressionable time of life. There are many fairy and folk tales also which,

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

ostensibly for very young people, contain far too much of slaughter and the like to be good for them. Certain other works also, good stories as such, well produced and illustrated, written mostly by American authors, are so full of the customary Americanese that they again are not to be generally recommended. Anyone having knowledge of children is aware how quickly they will absorb expressions of an unusual type, which while perfectly normal in the district to which they relate, are not to be encouraged over here. There is a wise middle course, and there are many excellent lists to depend upon which avoid many of the failings I have mentioned. The tendency in recent years seems to be getting further away from sensationalism and false views of life and morbid sentimentality, and many good books abounding in naturalness and simplicity of expression, but still full of adventure and sanity, and of greater wholesomeness are now available. At the same time there is still room for good juvenile literature in the non-fiction classes, although there has been a vast improvement in this field since my young days, when almost every work I got hold of recommended for children, whatever its subject, seemed to be teaching deportment, religion, and Sunday observance in disguise.

The selection of books for university and college libraries is usually a much simpler problem. The librarian is naturally dependent on the various members of the teaching staff, each of whom is an authority on the literature of his subject, and knows

BOOK SELECTION IN THEORY & PRACTICE

the books which he wants his students to read. In all subjects there are outstanding writers whose works will, almost without exception, be required in the library, and which the librarian will readily distinguish. The difficulty sometimes is to get the teachers concerned to take sufficient trouble to submit *desiderata* to the librarian, while in other cases the enthusiasm of the lecturer produces wholesale recommendations on his subject, out of all proportion to its importance in the institution or to the requirements of his pupils. To avoid these extremes happening it is advisable to have a small selection committee, as is done at the London School of Economics. This committee consists of the librarian and four or five members of the teaching staff, able between them to represent all or most of the subjects with which the library is concerned. This Accessions Committee as it is called meets weekly during term, and has before it various recommendations from lecturers, readers, and the library staff. The lists are circulated before each meeting, together with the probable cost of each work suggested. The decision to purchase is dependent almost entirely upon the known merits of each work, and a decision is usually come to in regard to immediate purchase or purchase at a later date when secondhand copies may arrive in the market. A table is regularly prepared showing the total amount of money spent for each department and the percentage of the total allocation in each case. In this way it is possible to avoid an unbalanced

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

stock and the loading of one class at the expense of another. Periodicals are dealt with in the same way, I would point out that this committee is not a subcommittee of the library committee, and is not responsible to the latter, which has no say in the matter of selection, but has a financial statement submitted to it at each meeting, showing the original allocation of expenditure for library matters, the amount spent on each item to the date of the meeting, and the amount remaining to be spent during the rest of the financial year. Even so, should the necessity arise the Director of the School has the power to make extra grants for books, above those definitely approved by the governing body. This is a real advantage to the library, as in many instances it has been possible to acquire important collections of books costing large sums of money without having to wait for a committee to meet and without having to use the normal library funds for the purpose. By such an arrangement in regard to the acquisition of books the library can be reasonably sure of getting essential books, delay is avoided, opportunities of procuring lots which suddenly offer themselves can be taken advantage of, and every department can be assured of equal consideration.

For the more practical side of book selection readers are referred to the chapter on that subject by Mr. J. E. Walker in *A Primer of Librarianship*, volume 2 in this series. It contains an admirable outline of the methods of approach to the problem

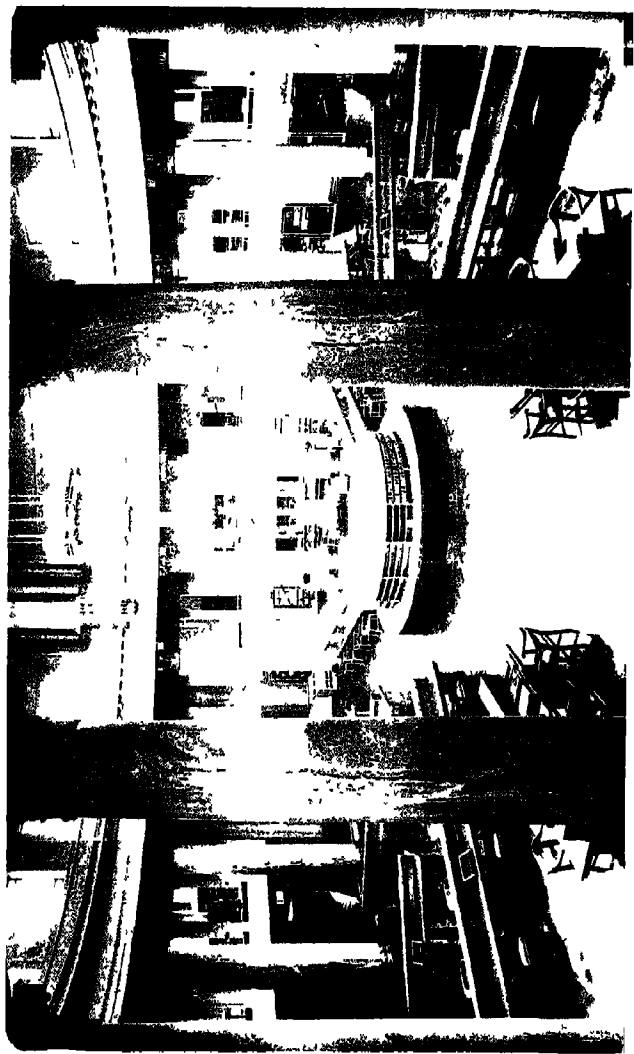


FIG. 37.—The Reading Room of the new Brotherton Library in
the University of Leeds

BOOK SELECTION IN THEORY & PRACTICE

of choosing books old and new. In so far as the actual buying of books is concerned, every librarian should endeavour to get the best value for money by buying in the cheapest market, and he should make every effort to purchase secondhand copies whenever such are capable of serving the library's purpose. Technical literature, legal works, and any others which go out of date quickly must obviously be purchased new. Review copies of such books are not easily obtainable, although it is frequently possible to get such in other classes of literature at about two-thirds of the published price. Certain booksellers specialize in this branch of the business and it is always wise to explore this market in the case of the more expensive publications except when prompt acquisition is essential. Whenever a list of requirements is prepared a number of copies of it should be made and these should be circulated to reputable firms and quotations asked for. When the lists have been returned to the library and prices, condition, etc., compared, the lowest priced, other things being reasonably equal, should be ordered. The balance not obtainable secondhand must be earmarked for supply as new copies. Frequently it will happen that there is a residue unobtainable either new or through the usual secondhand booksellers, being out of print and perhaps scarce. In this event the best plan if the works are urgently required is to get your local agent to advertise for them in the *Clique* or the *Bookdealers' Weekly*. A very large proportion of the

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

books wanted will be obtainable in this way, although prices of copies reported of the same edition of a work will range perhaps from 4s. to £4. Subscribers to the *Publishers' Circular* or the *Bookdealer's Weekly* may advertise directly in the columns of either journal, and thus save the commission which the agent will naturally charge, but it is questionable whether, after paying for the advertisement, there is very much to be gained, if one takes into consideration the additional time and trouble involved.

With regard to the purchase of new books, a¹ problem of many years' standing has been solved by the arrangement made between the Library Association and the publishers and booksellers in 1929, whereby for the first time since the introduction of the net book agreement between the publishers and booksellers the principle has been accepted that libraries are entitled to more favourable treatment than the casual purchaser of books. In my early years in the library service it was customary for the six-shilling novel to be sold, even to individual purchasers, at four shillings and sixpence. Libraries were able to get better terms still. Most libraries had annual contracts for the supply of new books and, within my own experience, some booksellers were prepared to allow as much as 33½ per cent discount off the published price of novels. This usually meant selling them at less than they cost the bookseller, who anticipated making sufficient profit on the non-fiction works, generally not

BOOK SELECTION IN THEORY & PRACTICE

subject to discount, to justify him in offering the one-third discount from the published price of works of fiction. Certain very large firms declined to sell novels at less than the published price and a cut-throat competition developed in the trade for the library supply, and the local bookseller in the smaller towns found it impossible to offer such favourable terms as the larger firms in London and elsewhere. In 1899 the publishers and booksellers agreed that, with very few exceptions, such as school books and the like, new books should not be sold to anyone at less than the published price. This put an end to the open competition before existing and libraries could not buy books any cheaper from the large agents than from their local bookseller, nor could they purchase a work for a lower price than the casual member of the public, no matter how large the order or how many copies of the same work were ordered at the same time. Later certain firms began to offer to paste in the books the various labels, pockets, etc., used by libraries, free of any charge, in order to induce orders. In fact, I believe in certain instances offers were made to print the labels as well as supply them without cost. There is no question either that many booksellers were surreptitiously allowing discounts even after they had signed the net book agreement. It appears that, by a sort of verbal understanding, the bookseller allowed the librarian to deduct from his monthly account a stipulated discount. It was not

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

deducted from the individual invoices by the bookseller himself. He received a cheque at regular intervals and was able to argue that he did not know which particular bills the cheque was intended to cover and he was quite unable to say whether anything had been deducted or not. There is reason to believe that something of this sort is still going on. At any rate several rate-supported libraries have not received licences under the new agreement, although it is obvious they must spend more than the minimum annual sum specified in the agreement. Therefore one of two things must happen. Either the ratepayers are not getting full value for money spent or else the library is getting better terms than the agreement offers. As a matter of fact librarians have boasted to me that they *are* getting better terms outside the agreement. Obviously I cannot offer to supply evidence of such existing practice, but considering the vast amount of time and trouble which the Library Association's representative expended in order to get to an agreement of any kind, the very real advantages which the agreement itself has brought to many libraries, and, not least, the establishment of the principle that libraries are entitled to preferential treatment, it is surely the duty of every member of the Association to ensure that no encouragement shall be given to any proposed infringement of the agreement, whether by libraries or booksellers. I know of libraries, not qualified to receive a licence, which are receiving a discount of 10 per cent or more on new books. Booksellers run

BOOK SELECTION IN THEORY & PRACTICE

a great risk in offering discount in such cases. The argument that a librarian is entitled to get the best terms he can for his library does not, in my opinion, justify him in knowingly supporting an action which, surely, it was the purpose of the Net Book Agreement to prevent. It is grossly unfair to those booksellers who carry out the agreement in the spirit and the letter, and unless there is good faith all round the agreement becomes a "scrap of paper."

The net book agreement as it stands at present enables libraries to obtain a licence which entitles them to an allowance, regarded as a commission, on books purchased. Licences are obtainable by all rate-supported libraries spending upwards of £100 per annum on new books published in the United Kingdom. Libraries not established under the Libraries Acts are also eligible under the same conditions, provided that the public are allowed free use of their books throughout their usual hours, it being recognized that special rules as to the use of the books and the right to refuse unsuitable applicants may be necessary, but any charge for the use of the library would be a disqualification in relation to the licence. This latter is an important point. The London School of Economics, which received its licence in 1929, felt compelled to take action to relieve the congestion in its various reading rooms, which, despite the fact that a further two hundred places became available for readers in the new buildings opened in 1933, is so largely used by outside readers that the school's own students

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

were frequently crowded out. To avoid this difficulty it was decided that, although genuine research workers, public officials, and other members of the public doing serious and continuous study of social problems should have the right of free entry, journalists, non-graduate students from outside working for examinations could not be admitted during term time at any rate without the payment of a fee (10s. 6d. for three months).

It seems that similar cases may arise elsewhere, and some provision should be made in the agreement to meet them. The fee is not arbitrarily imposed. It does not apply to the really serious reader, and there was no other way apparent of meeting the congestion problem adequately.

It will be noticed¹ that originally only 5 per cent discount was to be allowed to libraries spending between £100 and £500 per annum on new English books, the 10 per cent applying only to cases where upwards of £500 a year was spent. The number of libraries spending as much as £500 annually on these books must be exceptionally small, when it is remembered that only new books published in the United Kingdom are in question. The vast majority of novels and biographical and topographical works are usually purchased second-hand and many technical and other works are obtained as review copies. The result was that only a small percentage of the libraries receiving a licence could claim the 10 per cent discount and

¹ *Library Association Record*, August 1931.

BOOK SELECTION IN THEORY & PRACTICE

the benefits from the new agreement were not so great as had been anticipated, so in 1931 it was amended and the 10 per cent discount was made the standard for all libraries spending upwards of £100 a year on new books. A second alteration agreed at the same time was the cancelling of the stipulation that all the discount was to be re-spent on other new books, upon which no discount was to be allowed, and libraries may now utilize the discount in the way most satisfactory to them, either by way of a cash allowance or by allocating the sum for additional books. These alterations have improved and simplified matters considerably. The one outstanding defect in the arrangement is that the smaller struggling libraries which need help most receive no benefit whatever if the sum spent on new English books is less than £100 a year, and it is rather surprising to see the number of libraries which do not fulfil that qualification. This is a point which I have no doubt will be remedied as soon as possible, and it seems obvious that if the agreement is worked honestly by all parties it will not be difficult in the course of time to still further improve the conditions offered to libraries. As it stands the publishers and libraries no doubt benefit more than the booksellers. The latter sell more books and thus have a greater turnover, but the profits are not thereby increased. A library may buy £660 *worth* of books as against £600 worth, but the bookseller has more work to do for about the same profit. On the other hand it encourages

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

the library to buy its books from within its area and probably the local bookseller will benefit as against the large-scale purveyor established elsewhere. This at any rate seems all to the good. The publisher naturally benefits as he sells more books through the bookseller who does not receive any more favourable terms. As a matter of fact the publishers were never really antagonistic to the idea of giving commission to libraries. They stood to lose nothing in any case. It is quite conceivable that the extra thousands of books which will be bought by libraries as a result of the agreement may even mean a cheapening of the cost of production per volume owing to the larger demand for copies. This may sound rather fanciful, but as it has been understood from the first that libraries must not cut down their book allocation because of the discount obtainable it follows that the number of additional new books purchased by the libraries of the country as a whole must amount to many thousands in a year, and this fact must affect the economic laws of supply and demand in some way or other. No discount is given on those books on which the bookseller does not receive at least 2d. in the shilling plus 5 per cent, and libraries must be institutional members of the Library Association to be entitled to a licence. Thus the Association stands to benefit directly from the agreement, as no doubt many libraries not previously members will be favourable to paying the annual subscription in order to reap the much larger financial

BOOK SELECTION IN THEORY & PRACTICE

benefit offered by the discount on books purchased. With regard to the agitation for an increased discount, I cannot see how it is possible for the bookseller to give more favourable terms, unless he himself receives corresponding rates from his wholesaler or publisher. As I was, until recently, directly connected with a retail bookshop supplying libraries under the licence, I write with knowledge when I state that we could not continue to supply books if further discount is demanded. The average profit all round is 10 per cent, out of which we have to print and supply three different kinds of label and a book pocket, all of which have to be pasted in each volume supplied. A ruled catalogue card has also to be supplied with each work. For the labels and their insertion a sum of one halfpenny per volume is allowed. Most provincial booksellers must be similarly placed, and any increase in the discount must play into the hands of the multiple shop firms or the very large concerns who are able to do their own collecting and so save the wholesalers' commission.

CHAPTER XVII

RULES AND REGULATIONS: RATE-SUPPORTED LIBRARIES

It has been my opinion for a very long time that the rules controlling the use of public libraries are far too legal in their phraseology, instead of being simple and cordial invitations to all concerned to make the most of the privileges offered by the library to all and sundry. The language of library rules remains pretty much the same as it was eighty years ago and frequently one finds that the punishments and penalties are emphasized in italic or black-faced type. Cover labels bear extracts from the rules generally relating to fines for delay in returning books or damages if you get them spotted with rain. If rules are needed they should surely be addressed to those who manage the library. The public, the ratepayers whose property the library really is, chiefly need, *not* rules, but information and guidance, suggestion and advice. Stress should be laid upon the value the library offers and how to make the fullest use of it. Such rules as are considered necessary should be founded on common sense and worded in such a way as to make it easy for the most illiterate person to understand them. They should be intended to make the stranger feel welcome and to encourage and not mystify or discourage the timid, of whom there are still a

REGULATIONS: RATE-SUPPORTED LIBRARIES

few left. Every librarian likes to be trusted by his neighbour and tradesmen, and most of the public like to feel they are trusted by any library authority. Regulations for the use of the reading rooms should be framed with the object of making personal contact between the reader and the library's books and reviews as direct and easy as possible, with the absolute minimum of red tape. Rules for the loan of books should be made with a view to finding a way for all who ask for books to get them and take them home, and not with the idea of finding some technical flaw which will make the inquirer ineligible. Rules should be so constructed that if in certain cases they are an obstacle to ready lending and making an exception is an aid, then exceptions should be made. The arbitrary application of a regulation frequently creates an enemy of a required sympathizer. It is obviously foolish, if a borrower arrives just as the door is being locked, to decline service. It may be literally breaking a rule to admit the person, but common sense dictates the breaking of the rule in such circumstances. If a borrower comes without his card it savours of the ridiculous to decline to lend a book to him. Many instances within my own knowledge where such happenings have been against the readers' interests help to bring ridicule upon a great public institution. I would far rather take a risk and lend a borrower a book without his card being available than damage a library by losing the respect of a client. Far too much is made sometimes of this

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

sacred library ticket, and that is one reason why I advocate rules for the staff rather than for readers. Rules and regulations are not bye-laws, which can only be made by an authority which has power to legislate in this way. (A public library authority may make bye-laws, but not on their own power alone. They have to be confirmed by some superior authority (the Board of Education in England) before they can become operative. A regulation, unlike a bye-law, is not enforceable in a court of law, although it may cover some offence against the common or statute law, such as the *Mahcious Damages Act* of 1861 or the *Libraries Offences Act* of 1898. There is, however, no penalty at law for a breach of a library's regulations as such, and a public library regulation is not in itself recognized by the courts as a legal enactment as is the case with a bye-law. Any power of enforcement which a regulation may carry comes therefore from an infringement of the common or statute law by the breaking of a regulation. Readers should consult Sanderson's *Library Law*, pp. 117-22, for a simple explanation of the legal aspect and enforcement of rules and regulations.

We will assume that instructions and guidance to would-be users of the library—call them regulations if you like—are necessary. What points should they cover and how should they be adapted to meet the various questions involved? First of all should come general instructions applying to the whole building, intimating any day or days on which all

REGULATIONS: RATE-SUPPORTED LIBRARIES

departments are closed;² stating that persons who are unclean, disorderly, or intoxicated will not be allowed to remain in the building,³ and that eating, drinking, sleeping, talking, and the like are not allowed in the public departments of the library. One ought, I suppose, to include smoking in the list of prohibitions, but I purposely leave it out because some courageous authority may think fit to make some provision where a reader may smoke and read without interfering with the comfort of those who object to smoking (although there are few non-smokers nowadays). I am confident that a properly regulated smoking room would be a great boon to many and would certainly induce much greater use of the facilities for reading and study provided.⁴ No animal may be brought into the library is another essential instruction. The usual expression was "dog" instead of animal, but since an exciting encounter between a dog and a monkey, the former covered by a rule and the latter not, I prefer "animal." The instruction might also explain briefly the reason for its existence in a sympathetic way. It is astonishing the venom which can emanate from someone with a pet monkey or parrot when asked to take the animal out of the building. No such well-behaved and quiet animal ever breathed, and it would never think of breaking any library regulation, but the owner forgets that two monkeys, or even two parrots, meeting in the same department might cause as much commotion as an earthquake.

§ (An important suggestion, which *could* be printed

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

in large black-faced type, is something like this: "Do not hesitate to ask questions regarding the use of the library, or to offer any suggestions which you consider likely to benefit readers generally." When you get such suggestions do not turn them down immediately without consideration. Many will be silly and impracticable, but 2 per cent may not be, and no reader will be anxious to help again if any suggestion he makes, obvious because he thinks it will help matters, is peremptorily declined. Always say it will be considered, and acknowledge the thought which prompted it.

REFERENCE DEPARTMENT

Hours of opening are usually from 10 a.m. to 9 p.m. in residential districts, but in business areas with few residents an earlier hour of closing may not inconvenience anybody.

Is there any need to compel readers to write their names and addresses in a book before entering the reference library? It may be taken that a signature is an assent to the regulations of the department, but it is a nuisance to the regular reader, and the dishonest one would certainly not make a correct entry. Books in all departments should be made available for consultation in the reference department, and even novels from the lending library subject to the librarian's discretion. I think the fiction reader, living perhaps in two crowded rooms, with young and noisy children, should have an opportunity of reading a novel in comparative

REGULATIONS· RATE-SUPPORTED LIBRARIES

quietness and comfort. The fact that a work he wants is on the shelf is evidence that it is not in use from the lending library, and arrangements could always be made for it to be given up if definitely required for home reading. I know of libraries where fiction is refused for reading within the library, but yet you can register as a borrower, take a book from the lending library shelf, and sit down in the reference department for an hour or two and read it. Where is the difference? "Clearly announce that the staff will gladly explain the arrangement of the books, how to use the catalogues and bibliographies, and other aids to readers. There is still an inherent shyness in our fellow-creatures which sometimes prevents a question from them, or they feel they might be giving trouble.

¶ There should be no arbitrary age limit fixed for this department, but persons under fourteen years of age may be required to obtain a recommendation from their school teacher before being admitted. It is recognized that many young people of twelve years of age have more brains and can make better use of the books than others four or five years older, but the latter are usually automatically admitted and the former kept out. It is of no use arguing that the younger person may be given special permission on request to the librarian. That just explains the difference of atmosphere which has impressed me so much. It should be "you may do this if——" and not "you must not do this unless——" I think it is so *very* important to get the prospective reader

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

to realize that you are trying to make an opening for him and not trying to close one against him.

∞ There is usually a rule regarding the use of ink. Some libraries prohibit its use altogether while others make provision at a special table for those who wish to use pen and ink in the reference department. But even in those places where prohibition is in force, on paper, there are generally to be found plenty of fountain-pens in use. A satisfactory instruction is "Do not use ink in this department unless it is absolutely essential."

LENDING LIBRARY

✓ Hours of opening for a lending library vary, but anything shorter than from 10 a.m. to 9 p.m. is not altogether satisfactory, particularly in large residential districts like the London suburbs. Many libraries close at 8 p.m., but this does not give much opportunity for such people as shop assistants who work in town and cannot get away before 7 p.m. With a train journey and possibly meal-time to follow, eight o'clock closing of the lending library is not convenient to large numbers of people. It is really a war-time innovation and it ought not to be difficult to provide an extra hour's facility. After all the users of the library should be considered before staff convenience. Anything which brings more people to the library's register of borrowers is worth a little sacrifice. The opening of the lending department at as late an hour as 11 a.m. is not to be recommended. There may not be a rush of



This shows the control of the Lending Library, which has no locked barriers, an arrangement which it is hoped will be widely copied in future, and thus remove from the mind of the borrower any suggestion that he cannot be trusted. In my *Library of the Future* I pointed out that Leicester had "decided to make the experiment of giving the public unrestricted access and to trust to supervision and public good sense for the prevention and avoidance of abuse." The experiment has been fully justified. Dr. Lowe writes me as follows: "We should not think of going back to wickets. We have had no trouble whatever by reason of their absence and our Libraries have a much more inviting appearance without them." It is interesting to note that the only detected theft of recent years was at a Branch Library which still has wickets. Supervision is responsible for detection, and not the wickets. Open access, like many other library improvements, emanated from the United States, but barriers have long since been done away with almost everywhere there. "Safeguarding" did something to alleviate the fears of nervous committeemen and to weaken the attacks of opponents to the principle of open access here. The vast majority of readers will appreciate the confidence placed in them by the removal of restrictions, while it is obvious that the determined book thief will pay little regard to barriers.

REGULATIONS: RATE-SUPPORTED LIBRARIES

people between 10 a.m. and 11 a.m., but if the extra hour makes borrowing possible for even a few serious readers it should be provided unless absolutely impracticable without great disorganization and much extra cost. Apart from residents in the library area, provision should be made for scholars attending school in the district and non-resident employees to borrow books without charge. The latter class at any rate usually spend money in the district and thus indirectly contribute to the locality's revenue. The usual strictly legal phraseology, regarding application forms, etc., should be substituted by a cordial invitation to qualified persons to make use of the department by obtaining a form, filling it in, and receiving a ticket immediately the form is handed in correctly filled. ✓ Extra tickets for non-fiction should be issued without question, unless the stock of the library is unreasonably smaller than the minimum of three volumes per borrower. Tickets should be available without the filling in of new forms annually. Such a practice is not only a trouble to borrowers, but is distinctly uneconomical for the library. The use of thousands of forms and new tickets every year or two is a costly matter, for which there is in my opinion no real need. I believe borrowers can be educated to notify changes of address and to return tickets when they are no longer qualified, by judicious propaganda.

✓ The guarantor question is one which requires serious consideration. Personally I think that the regulation requiring residents whose names do

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

not appear in any current voters' list or directory to obtain a guarantor is a definite handicap to the full use of the library. Many people dislike altogether the idea of asking someone else to take responsibility for possible misdeeds and it is very doubtful whether the guarantor system provides much added security for the library. I believe that in the United States, for instance, the system does not exist anywhere. The library authorities are prepared to take a person's signed declaration as sufficient for the purpose, and readers like to know that they are trusted. Besides, if every guarantee could be tested it is absolutely certain that a very large percentage would be found to be not genuine. Not that large numbers of forgeries are committed in this way, but many people think it does not really matter whether father, brother Jack, or sister Mary signs father's name. My own inquiries have convinced me that suspicion attaches to a great number of the signatures of guarantors, the writing of the same name in many cases being quite different, but it is a delicate matter to suggest that some other person than the one whose name appears has signed the form, while there is always a difficulty in proving a case. Even the "twopenny libraries" accept borrowers without a declaration of any sort from the reader, and with some experience I can vouch that the losses of books are really infinitesimal. Again, the average borrower is not really dishonest, and the dishonest person will find some means of overcoming any regulation. There is no reason why he

REGULATIONS. RATE-SUPPORTED LIBRARIES

should not write some qualified person's name as guarantor if he really means to appropriate books. I see no reason why a resident who is not on the voters' list should always be considered untrustworthy and the mere fact of being a registered voter label an individual as free from suspicion. It is worth the little risk attaching to the transaction and to be satisfied with an intending borrower's own security. In cases where the proposed borrower is only qualified as an employee, libraries should be satisfied with the recommendation of a responsible member of the employing firm and not ask for the customary full guarantee. I personally have recommended several of my staff, not resident in the locality, and have struck out the usual sections about being responsible for fines and damages incurred and not paid by the borrower. In every instance the voucher has been accepted, but it should not be a matter to be settled in such a way. ✓ It should be clearly laid down in any regulations that such a procedure is possible. I should have declined to sign the voucher if the printed guarantee had been insisted upon. The number of potential borrowers lost by the insistence must be very considerable.

✓ A further point for consideration is whether monetary penalties for retaining books beyond the period allowed for reading are wise or even effective in bringing about the desired result. The mere fact that many libraries receive an income of four figures from fines is evidence that large numbers

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

of books are not returned promptly. There is no doubt that monetary penalties work unequally. The poor person feels it is a distinct hardship to hand over a penny even, while those better off frequently imagine that the fine is a sort of extra subscription for the longer retention of a work, so that a novel in great demand, and not renewable because of that fact, is retained long enough for every member of the household to read it if desired. With children (although many libraries do not impose fines on them) a monetary penalty is the cause of a good deal of vexation sometimes, especially with parents. I have known cases where a boy or girl has been told a penny is due. The child has gone home and told his mother, the mother has come round to the library with the young person, has indignantly combated the payment, and eventually thrown down the necessary coins, given a sound box on the ears to the culprit, and ordered him not to get any more books.

Surely this last is the one thing that is *not* wanted to happen. It would be interesting if one could have statistics of the "black lists" in the various London libraries. These "lists" are really the collection of tickets not in use belonging to readers who have failed to pay fines due and who have preferred to cut themselves off from the library service rather than pay. I know no better way of arousing resentment against the library than these fines. I have felt tremendously encouraged by the experience of Dagenham Public Library, where

REGULATIONS RATE-SUPPORTED LIBRARIES

finer are not charged, but instead it has been the practice to "instil into the minds of the residents a sense of moral obligation, instead of one of petty irritation." This, to my mind, is the attitude to be adopted on all the problems I have discussed above. That it is an efficient method in bringing the desired results, so far as penalties are concerned, is corroborated by the comparative figures obtained by the Dagenham librarian. The percentage of overdue books at Dagenham is considerably lower than in any of the libraries tabulated where monetary penalties are inflicted, plus no loss of sympathy with the movement as must be the case where "petty irritation" is prevalent. Before the 1919 Act came into operation removing the penny rate limit many libraries could justify fines because of the substantially increased income for the library resulting therefrom, but nowadays that argument does not hold, and there is no logical reason why additional taxation, even if in some cases voluntary, should be officially countenanced. It is to be hoped that other library authorities will follow Dagenham's lead, and refrain from taxing the old lady who, prevented by a snowstorm from returning her book on the day it is due, is mulcted of some minute portion of her capital the next day when she appears in the lending department. I remember one such lady telling me that she never goes to the library now as she is afraid once she gets as far as the doormat she may be arrested for some unrealized offence against the "Rules and Regula-

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

tions." If there is a case requiring some attention it is that of the frequent and deliberate offender who, after warnings, still persists in keeping books too long. Such a person will probably feel the effect of a short suspension of his ticket much more acutely than the payment of a few pence, and will not hesitate to take up his ticket again at the end of the suspensory period. It must be confessed that many borrowers are on the "black list" not because they cannot afford to pay a fine, but simply as a result of sheer irritation, especially in those cases where the borrowers feel they have a really genuine excuse for their failure to return books to time.

This question leads me to that of the reservation of books, a practice which I have never believed in. If a book is in very great demand, and a reader does not happen to visit the library until a fortnight after its receipt into the library, he perhaps arranges for a postcard to be sent to him, at the cost of one penny, informing him that the work is available. But he may be number thirty on the bespoke list and his turn for the book may not come for a couple of years. Secondly where the reservations apply to fiction (although some libraries exclude it), it is obviously impossible to supply sufficient copies of some books to satisfy all those who want to read them, and a small number with reservations allowed will certainly *not* satisfy a considerable number of expectant borrowers. Thirdly a good deal of possible reading time is wasted by the reservation system. It is usual when a bespoke book is returned

REGULATIONS: RATE-SUPPORTED LIBRARIES

for the postcard to be sent to the next reader on the list, who gets the card the day after posting, and another forty-eight hours may be allowed for him to take up the work, so that two or three days are inevitably lost at each transaction. Again it is undemocratic in that many people will feel the expenditure of a penny more than they should afford. Not a large number, perhaps, but sufficient to induce a feeling of class distinction in a few who will convince themselves that someone a little better off is getting something which he himself cannot afford. If the latest crazes are avoided there should be little need of a reservation system at all. Any book in great demand six months after its publication can justifiably be duplicated or triplicated, and the supply would be sufficiently large to ensure that no reader would have to wait very long before finding it on the shelf, and what in some instances entails considerable time—the keeping of the register and the booking and sending and filing of the bespoke requests—would be avoided.

Perhaps I ought to say something about the time allowed for reading books borrowed. A fixed period is very undesirable. Fourteen days all round is more satisfactory than a fortnight for some books and ten days or seven days for others. Readers are bound to get confused despite the entry on the date label, or at any rate they will say they thought it was a fortnight allowed, and it is as well to avoid every possibility of a misunderstanding.

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

Is there any necessity nowadays for lending libraries to be closed at 1 p.m. on one day in the week? It is quite right that the staff should all have a half-holiday each week, but it can usually be arranged for such to happen, although not for most assistants to be off on the same afternoon. I do not think they very much mind about that. What does desire alteration is the tendency to close the lending library on the shop assistants' early closing day. There seems to be no advantage to the library in this, but it is a distinct inconvenience to the community. I know of districts where certain shops are open during the whole period of library opening, and the only chance the shop assistants get of being off duty is when the lending library is closed. Another one of these little irritating arrangements of no benefit to either party.

Sunday opening and holiday opening are not so important perhaps to-day as when the working classes worked much longer hours which gave them little opportunity of visiting any department of the library in the time they had available, but in certain industrial areas and congested working-class districts there may still be a demand for Sunday opening sufficient to justify the opening of the reference library and reading rooms for a few hours. Local circumstances will be the deciding factor. There is a good deal to be said for making parts of the library available during the winter months on Sunday evenings, but it is doubtful whether in the longer days it is wise to encourage anyone to spend the

REGULATIONS. RATE-SUPPORTED LIBRARIES

time indoors. There can be no reasonable objection to Sunday opening on religious grounds, but no member of the staff should be required to work on seven days a week, even if such member should be willing. Double time off in the week is far better than extra payment for Sunday duty from the health standpoint, but if duty is to be expected from the members of the staff on Sundays it should be clearly set out when appointments are made. In the United States Sunday opening is general and in many places there is more use made of the reference library on Sundays than on any other day. Even the lending library is open in some places. Similar arguments apply to the opening of municipal libraries on public holidays. If there is a general demand for the use of libraries on Bank Holidays I consider it should be met, in the same way that railways and other transport concerns have felt it necessary to depart from the Victorian tradition. Of course, the two cases are not alike. You pay for every extra journey by train or bus, but the library gets no more directly because it opens on a holiday. I think, however, my argument is clear enough. If a substantial section of the community are likely to benefit from the additional opportunities of using the library every effort should be made to provide them, always with the proviso that the library staff are not saddled with extra hours of work and additional travelling expenses thereby. I think we have to look forward to the time when libraries are *always* open. A revolutionary thought I

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

am aware, but assuming that the ordinary functioning of the departments is not injuriously affected thereby, why not? Naturally I do not mean *every* library should be open day and night, but wherever people arrive and depart one can visualize their satisfaction at finding information and mental recreation always at their disposal.

One other point I would particularly emphasize is the undesirability of fixing arbitrary age limits for any department, even including the children's library. As I have previously stated, the ability to read and understand books cannot be determined by the age of a person, and there are "children" of eighty years as well as children of eight years. It should not be left for a prospective user of a department to find out by accident that a rule may be modified by the librarian. It should be clearly stated that such is possible.

For the rest I can only refer readers to the draft rules to be found in Brown's *Manual of Library Economy*, the Bible of all students of librarianship as a whole. In this chapter I have endeavoured to lay down abstract principles and to draw special attention to the most important matters of contention. My opinions are based not alone upon my own long experience and study of these questions, but also upon the expressed opinions of large numbers of borrowers in all sorts of places. I would specially plead again for a simplification of the phraseology used in any rules and regulations, following the American form more closely; the

REGULATIONS: RATE-SUPPORTED LIBRARIES

greater elasticity of such rules; the placing of much more faith in the individual reader; and the stressing of the library's desire to benefit the reader and to make him feel more at home than he can be in any other public institution.

CHAPTER XVIII

RULES AND REGULATIONS: UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGE LIBRARIES

The differing conditions of accommodation and purpose existing in non-municipal libraries make it impossible to lay down any such definite regulations as may apply to rate-supported libraries, but there are certain principles and problems common to most of the university and college libraries. In regard to the right of using the library most universities allow serious readers properly recommended to have facilities for research, but many colleges restrict the use of their libraries to teachers and students directly connected with the college or its university. In recent times the tendency to make it easy for the outside reader to have access to non-public libraries has been more noticeable, and every effort should be made to allow outsiders under reasonable conditions to make use of such material as is not easily procurable elsewhere. Whenever a permit is granted to a reader he should be asked to sign a register on his first visit as an assent to the rules and regulations in force in the library. Permits should be available over a definite limited period, but be subject to renewal. It is not unreasonable to insist upon the production of a recommendation from some responsible person

REGULATIONS—UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

with every application for a permit, although in the case of isolated visits for a special purpose this recommendation should not ordinarily be required provided a reader can give evidence of his *bona fides*. Most university and college libraries in this country are far too infrequently open in the evenings. It is probably largely a matter of staff, which means, of course, finance, but there is no doubt a considerable benefit would be conferred on large numbers of readers if libraries generally could remain open until 9 p.m.

One of the great problems these libraries have to solve is that of the misappropriation (I think that is the best word) of books. It is an astonishing fact that the higher the standard of education of readers the greater is the number of books which disappear from the shelves. Not always permanently, but long enough to cause inconvenience to many would-be users.

Since open access in a greater or less degree became the vogue it has been a comparatively simple matter for those who are so disposed to "borrow" books intended solely for reference, with the result that all sorts of special measures, which should be entirely unnecessary if the good faith of students could be assured, have had to be introduced to safeguard the contents of the library. It is a fact that the books which disappear are naturally those most in demand. Sometimes the only existing copy of an essential work vanishes early in the session, largely because some reader realizes its

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

indispensability to him, and so anxious is he to have full use of the work that he contrives to remove it to some other place where he knows it will always be available for him. He has little regard for the needs of others to whom the book is equally a necessity. The thought rarely occurs to him. Other works disappear for a time because members of the staff or students carry them to their own rooms without signing the necessary application forms, while others again are deliberately appropriated because of their intrinsic value. It is curious how many readers there are whose consciences will allow them to borrow a book which they are fully aware is not intended to be loaned, but will not allow them to return such books because of the fear that their delinquencies will be discovered. Whatever the reasons may be it is unquestionable that the loss of books, temporarily or permanently, is much greater from university and college libraries than from municipal libraries, and a general tightening up of the regulations has become necessary in many libraries in order to ensure the proper use of the books. Even turnstiles have been called in to help. It is certain that the allowing of attaché cases and overcoats with large pockets in reading rooms facilitates misappropriation. Attaché cases are not only a nuisance as an aid to smuggling, but in any reading room liable to congestion (and which college library is not at times?) they are intensely inconvenient. Some of them are as large as travelling trunks and if deposited on the reading tables they take up

REGULATIONS—UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

most of the reading space, while if placed on the floor they are fatal traps for the unsuspecting. When they were first debarred from the Library of the London School of Economics, in the middle of a session, there were hourly deputations of students for a day or two demanding the withdrawal of the new instruction because of the great handicap to those who had papers, note-books, etc., required during reading time. It did not seem to occur to these people that the contents of the attaché cases were quite portable and that anything required from them could easily be taken to the table. The next generation of students, never having different treatment, raised no question. Of course, provision must be made for these cases, etc., to be left under control outside the reading rooms, and one of the rules of the School of Economics Library lays it down that attaché cases, overcoats, hats, umbrellas, or other impedimenta must not be brought into the reading rooms, and that all such articles can be deposited in the cloak rooms of the school, or attaché cases left at the library porters' lodge. It must be pointed out that, although there are a number of reading rooms on two floors of the library of the school, entrance and exit are only possible at one door, so that every reader comes under the observation of the porter on duty. Even this arrangement did not altogether solve the problem. Some readers brought in their own copies of text-books, etc., and obviously went out on rare occasions with one more than was taken in. Certain special rooms

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

separated from the main rooms were provided where third-year students and others could read books from the main libraries, and absolute control of all books taken out was difficult. Further measures, therefore, had to be taken, and a second porter's desk at the entrance was provided, above which is a notice, "All books must be shown here." Books legitimately applied for to be used in special rooms have passes inserted in them which are handed to the porter, and any library books not so marked are challenged. The system is no doubt effective, and although it means an increase of the porter staff to carry it out, the alternative may mean a greater cost for replacement of essential works than for the wages of an extra janitor. No honest person will object to this control if it is made clear that no suspicion attaches to anyone when books, etc., are examined at the exit, but that readers frequently, in error but in good faith, leave with books not intended for circulation, or not properly charged up.

Members of the teaching staff should equally with students be bound by the regulations, except that they should be allowed to take books, under proper signature, to their own private rooms. It is essential that such a privilege should not entitle the staff to a monopoly of a book, and the rule should stipulate that any book asked for by another reader and not actually in use by the teacher must be handed over. It is proverbial that members of the teaching staff are frequently the greatest sinners against

REGULATIONS—UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

library rules, and the co-operation of all is essential if a library is to have the maximum of efficient service.

Ink bottles and inkwells should be forbidden in the reading rooms, but fountain-pens should be allowed, provided that all filling is done outside the room.

It should be clearly laid down that the reading rooms are intended solely for study and research and for no other purpose, thus giving the library staff authority to prevent people reading their own newspapers, writing letters, solving cross-word puzzles, etc., in a chair not provided for such purposes. Without some such rule it may be difficult to convince a person that he is trespassing on space required for something more important.

The right to withdraw any facilities provided should also be clearly stated.

In the case of the university and college library also a great deal more could be done in promoting the right use of the library by inculcating into the mind of every user that the efficient working of the library depends largely upon his attitude to the rules and regulations, which have been drawn up to provide the greatest possible assistance to the whole body of students.

There are many other questions of an everyday character which may require to be covered in any set of rules, and comparison of existing rules in other libraries will help in denoting the usual provisions made. My object here has been to

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

touch upon some of the acute problems of the university and college library, so that anyone with the organization of a library as his task can be familiar with what he has to contend against. It will be seen that a good deal of regimentation has crept into the organization or administration, but it should never be introduced simply as such. The more one can get the good faith of those entitled to use the library the less should be the regimentation, and personally I should always be prepared to run some risks at the beginning rather than to insist upon excessive documentation by the library or teaching staff and to avoid whenever possible trespassing upon the time of the latter. Nothing I have written in this chapter modifies the opinion I have expressed in the previous chapter as to the trustworthiness of the average borrower in so far that he will honour his own signature, while the really dishonest reader will honour neither his own or anyone's, and I suggest that the average person should not be hampered by red-tape regulations which are obviously fitted to extreme cases. Proper arrangement of exits and supervision will not disturb the genuine reader, but they will be more effective against abuse than any documents or guarantees minus adequate supervision.

CHAPTER XIX

COUNTY LIBRARIES. REGIONAL LIBRARIES

Until the removal of the limit of a penny in the pound rate for public library purposes by the operation of the Act of 1919, very many towns and villages, with populations of generally from twenty thousand downwards, were without any real library facilities at all. A few places were courageous enough to found a library service and managed to carry on some sort of provision for reading among the community, but it is obvious that such towns and villages could not hope, with such a limited rate income, to maintain a building and a service at anything approaching a desirable state of efficiency, especially when it is remembered that large numbers of places could not even obtain the full rate on all rateable property within their areas, agricultural land being exempt from a large part of the local rate.

It is not surprising therefore that a great majority of local authorities were wise enough not to attempt to provide a public library system at all, rightly feeling that it was of little benefit to anyone for a building to be erected if it had to be starved after erection, and it was not until the Public Libraries Act, 1919, came into force that the possibility of providing something adequate for small towns and

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

even remote country villages came into sight. By giving power to county councils to become library authorities for any part of their areas not already having facilities provided under the libraries acts, the 1919 Act paved the way for the immense development of the public library movement in small towns and rural areas. It is not my province here to go into great detail regarding the working of county libraries. Full information on this point will be found in several works listed in the bibliography at the end of this work, and in a volume shortly to be issued. What I wish to do is to give an outline of the functions of the county and regional libraries and the methods of solving the problems which arise in their organization.

The county library was intended to provide a service for purely rural areas which were without libraries; to establish stationary libraries in small towns where they were not already existing, and to supplement existing but inadequate services in these same small areas in order that the reading needs of the community could be reasonably met.

It was felt that the rural inhabitant could benefit educationally and recreatively by the provision of suitable books. Although many private individuals or bodies had made some attempt to do this in the past the efforts were generally not very successful. Apart from the lack of the necessary money for an adequate supply of books, many of those which were provided were books which the benefactors wanted the people to read and were not necessarily

COUNTY LIBRARIES. REGIONAL LIBRARIES

those which the inhabitants would choose to read or even books which they might be expected to understand. Propagandist societies of various types were among those which tried to get the population of the rural areas to adopt a reading habit, but the literature available was not generally such as would get father to hurry home from the "Rose and Crown" in order to imbibe liberally of the refreshment for the mind freely offered.

It was recognized also that it is not of much permanent benefit to the individual or the nation if a person who has been compelled to learn to read and write is to be without means of developing that knowledge after school days are over, and to acquire that general knowledge which alone can make a man a good citizen, conversant with those social, economic, and moral questions which affect every locality however small it be. And besides it was felt that men and women who were able by means of books to learn more about their own occupations and, incidentally, the possibility of new methods in industry and trade which might have a beneficial influence on themselves and their employers if studied aright, were bound to become more useful members of society.

It was felt also that many of the studiously minded among the population might be induced to refrain from adding to the congestion in our larger towns and cities if they could be provided with the literature necessary for their further education in their own homes.

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

The success of the county library movement up to date in all these matters is the justification of their inception, and the best evidence that in the future their responsibilities will become greater and greater, necessitating many departures from the original objectives. To begin with the county library meant a collection of books in some building, not specially erected for the purpose, from which books were distributed at intervals to a large number of small towns and villages, housed in the village school or institute, and available perhaps for borrowing for two hours a week. Instead of the reader going to the library for his books, as in the case of an established urban library, the books were really taken to the reader. His choice was, of course, distinctly limited, and, as the librarians at the village distribution centres were usually quite untrained in library technique, they were also without that special advice and aid which is such an essential element in the library system. The expenditure per head of population served in county libraries in 1925 was less than one penny a year; in urban libraries it was one shilling per head. In 1933 the average cost per head of population in the county library service was over fourpence, about one-fourth of the average sum spent during the same year in the urban libraries. This shows a really remarkable increase in a matter of eight years or so, but it is a sure proof that not only have the authorities themselves realized the value of the library service but quite as obviously the people

COUNTY LIBRARIES. REGIONAL LIBRARIES

also, for after all they have to find the money for it. This, too, in a period when the greatest economic depression the world has experienced was a tremendous handicap against the development of educational and social services financed by public authorities. It is by now perfectly clear that no one central county institution can hope to provide all those facilities which a population crying for more and willing to pay for it demands. Some counties have already had to extend their headquarters, others are anxious to do so, but this question is likely to be influenced by the possible development of a system of county branch libraries, as already functioning in Derbyshire.¹

Several counties were compelled to exclude from the county library service certain places with substantial populations (10,000 to 20,000) on the grounds that the demand for books would be more than the county could undertake to meet, while in similar towns in other counties where supplies were undertaken, the limitations of such were quickly recognized, and it was soon evident that nothing short of a properly equipped and staffed library on urban lines would meet the requirements. Derbyshire's attempt to solve the problem took the form of branch libraries in the more populous towns, run by the county with a staff provided from that of the headquarters. The locality is provided with a building, a representative collection

¹ "Decentralization in County Library Administration," by Edgar Osborne, *Library Association Record*, June 1932.

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

of books, easily accessible, with a trained full-time librarian and an assistant, with additional voluntary helpers in the evenings. The library is open for some hours every day, and outside those hours the staff is engaged on regional work. That is to say, the branch not only serves the town in which it is situated, but it also undertakes the supply of books to other villages round about, instead of this having to be done from headquarters. In this way more frequent exchanges are possible because only a few centres would be served by a branch. Opportunity is provided for any reader to visit the branch library and thus gain personal contact with a trained staff and a chance of selecting from a much larger number of books. Invariably almost there will be a local bus service from the villages to the branch town which would facilitate transport both of books and of keen readers. Local industries of a special character (mining, etc.) would have special provision made for them in the stock of books, and would be much more readily obtainable by those desiring them than if distribution from headquarters had to be awaited. Under existing methods trained staffs are being enlarged at every headquarters, while the actual reader is still in the care of the voluntary worker. By decentralization the stock and staff now at headquarters are dispersed throughout the county. The branches house the stock of "live" books, while headquarters holds the large reserve of books essential to any library collection, while at the same time not in constant

COUNTY LIBRARIES. REGIONAL LIBRARIES

demand. Cataloguing, classification, etc., are all carried out at headquarters for the sake of uniformity, and naturally all matters of administration affecting the county as a whole, work with students and development policies, would emanate from headquarters. "Headquarters would be the brain of any decentralization system, and the branches the points of contact with the public." As regards the financing of these branches, it is obvious that if the county is to administer the library it cannot expect the locality to be responsible for the entire cost of running the branch and its regional work as well, but any library undertaking this latter would obtain a building and service for less than it would cost to maintain independently, by an agreed apportionment of the cost *pro rata* to population served.

Such an arrangement might well be welcomed by other places which, unable to support an independent institution, are compelled to fall back on the county library. Many places have accepted what is called the differential rating system in order to provide themselves with a library service which approximates to requirements. By this method an arrangement is made between the local authority and the county council under which the latter body undertakes to supply a sufficient number of books for the population and to change them at intervals, on the understanding that the local authority will provide and maintain a library building and staff out of a special library rate levied on the town

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

concerned and pay in addition a further sum for county library services on the same basis as other parts of the county library area. An ever-changing supply of books is assured to the locality at a comparatively small cost and a library service is provided in this way incomparably better than could be attempted independently except by levying an excessively high rate. Even more favourable results would accrue to the small town library if it could become a branch distributing station for its surrounding area on behalf of the county on the lines indicated above. At the Library Association Conference in London in September 1934, the question of county library headquarters was the subject of a paper by Mr. A. Ogilvie, in which he stated that in the planning of headquarters 60 per cent of floor space should be allocated for shelving of stock and 40 per cent for other purposes, and that the stock should be looked upon as a "wholesale" department, not open for inspection by the ordinary reader as is usual in the town library. This latter point was not generally accepted as the right attitude and it seems perfectly natural that among the future developments in county library method there must be considered the desirability of giving readers access to the books themselves. It is hardly likely that such an arrangement would bring crowds of people to headquarters, but it would certainly be a benefit to many teachers and others who have the task of choosing suitable works for their students. Any headquarters building should

COUNTY LIBRARIES. REGIONAL LIBRARIES

for many reasons be adaptable for a certain amount of "open access." It does not seem to be reasonable that county branches should afford greater facilities to readers than a headquarters building. The County Library Headquarters of Northamptonshire not only allows the public access to the non-fiction stock, but also provides a reading room.

The particular problems which county library authorities are faced with generally are insufficient opening hours, inadequate stocks, and cramped quarters. These can only be met adequately by the provision of branch county libraries with trained staffs, larger and better stocks of books, and improved equipment.

The organization of a county library service has been fully dealt with in the works of Mr. MacLeod and Mr. Duncan Gray, so far as the period up to 1923 is concerned, while the *Report of the Public Libraries Committee*, the reports of the Carnegie Trustees, and the files of the *Library Association Record* of recent years are full of valuable information relating to new ideas and developments in practice. It is only possible to give a bare outline of what has to be provided for in any county library service. Every focus of population requires to be a centre of distribution and the county librarian must make a complete survey of his area and familiarize himself with the character and educational standard of his possible clients, the location of particular industries, the presence of educational and other societies and institutions, the means of

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

transport (road, rail, or river) available, and the library facilities already existing in the county. Centres are generally listed in co-operation with the County Education Officer, under whom, of course, the county librarian, strictly speaking, works. A local committee should be chosen for each centre, selected from any societies or associations located in the district, who should be responsible for details of local administration, such as hours of opening, voluntary librarians, choice of building in which books should be placed. Institutes are more suitable than schools, the latter suggesting to many minds that the object of the library is entirely an educational one. Any institute or building attached to a religious or political body should be avoided, but a village hall is usually admirably suited for a library centre and a village institute is also to be commended as it is frequently open for several hours a day or at any rate every evening, often allowing the provision of a reading room and a nucleus reference library as well. Methods of transport must be considered, and decisions made as to whether the railway, the motor delivery van, the exhibition book van, or the carrier is the best. The county librarian really finds most of his time taken up with administrative duties and frequent visits to each centre, propaganda work on behalf of the library, and such-like matters. The technical side of the work has largely to be left to his trained assistants. In particular the problem of co-operation with the National Central Library

COUNTY LIBRARIES. REGIONAL LIBRARIES

and with other libraries in his county is an important one.

As a matter of fact co-operation forms the basis of all library development in future, if that development is to be on the fullest and best lines for all concerned, and the foundation of this co-operation is the National Central Library, with its "outlier" libraries, and the network of regional libraries recently established throughout the country.

Co-operation between the county and the urban library has taken various forms in the past. Sometimes the county has paid a small sum annually to a town library for the use of the non-fiction stock for county purposes. In other cases the reverse has been the position. For instance, at Hanwell in Middlesex the county undertook to provide one thousand volumes at a time, frequently changed, for the sum of £50 a year. Curiously this arrangement was not readily agreed to by the Hanwell library authority. It appears that an average sum of £50 a year only was able to be spent annually on books out of the local library rate, a sum absolutely insufficient to keep any library stock fresh and up to date and in sufficient supply. For £50 one may assume that approximately 250 volumes, new, old, or replacements, were obtained, and the result was that readers gradually left off borrowing, issues declined seriously, because there was nothing more to read. When the arrangement with the county was suggested, it was argued by some that "if we pay the £50 a year to the county

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

we shall not be increasing our stock of books, and at the end of five years we shall have an addition of 1,200 volumes to our stock which we can call our own if we continue to spend the same amount as heretofore." It was clear to most of those concerned that many of the books bought in the early years of the period would, in the circumstances, require replacing before the end of the term and that there would certainly not be anything like 1,200 additional volumes on the shelves. Even if there were, the number would be quite insufficient to meet the demands of the community. Wisdom prevailed, and with the frequent freshening of the stock from the County Library came an influx of borrowers, new and old, and an astonishingly large growth of users in a very short time. The advent of regional library schemes has again brought about a new situation and further development in co-operation all to the advantage of the smaller and the struggling library. There are now 452 libraries co-operating in the various regional schemes. In addition 27 libraries co-operate in the London inter-lending system, in which the libraries undertake to lend books only to one another. Every county library is now co-operating in its regional scheme, while 18 university libraries and 50 special libraries also participate. Full particulars of the regional systems will be found in the *Annual Report of the National Central Library*. The Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees allocated funds sufficient to

COUNTY LIBRARIES. REGIONAL LIBRARIES

cover the cost of setting up these schemes, a condition of the grants being that the participating libraries must contribute towards running costs, the grants being applied towards the original cost of establishing the nucleus catalogue. This catalogue is a feature of all the regional schemes so far established, the general idea in each being much the same. In each area there is a headquarters library, which houses the combined catalogue of the non-fiction works in the co-operating libraries in the area. A work demanded not being available in a particular library, application is made to the Regional Bureau. If the work is located in any library within the area, as shown by the catalogue, application for its loan to the inquiring library is made. If no copy is available in the area, headquarters sends its application to the National Central Library, which, if unable to supply from its own stock, makes application to one of its 135 outlier libraries or to other Regional Bureaux. An Outlier Library is one which lends books to other libraries through the National Central Library. These "outliers" contain between them something like five and a half million volumes, and special libraries of great size and importance, such as Dr. Williams's Library and the Library of the London School of Economics, and great national libraries such as the National Library of Wales, co-operate in the attempt to provide any book required for any reader, however remotely the latter may be situated. It should be

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

noted that many university and special libraries are contributing libraries in the regional schemes, while the headquarters library of the North Regional System is itself a special library, thus emphasizing the very important fact that the ordinary borrower from the town or county library now has facilities for reading at home books of the greatest importance which his own library in most cases could never attempt to acquire. The National Central Library, which is to have a duplicate copy of each regional catalogue, is relieved of a good deal of its inter-lending work by the establishment of these regional library systems, which are able to satisfy from their own areas a large percentage of applications which otherwise would have been sent direct to the National Central Library. I might mention here that in the case of the Northern and the South-Eastern Regional Areas the participating libraries now pay to the Regional Bureau a combined subscription to the Bureau and the National Central Library, the latter receiving a refund from the Bureau in each instance. This simplifies matters considerably and is apparently satisfactory to all the parties concerned. The above is a very brief outline only of the functions of County Libraries and Regional Bureaux, which will receive fuller consideration from more experienced authorities in the volume on *Library Co-operation in Great Britain*, for which Colonel Newcombe has made himself responsible. In the meantime students should carefully read the literature mentioned in

COUNTY LIBRARIES. REGIONAL LIBRARIES

the Bibliography dealing with the subjects of this chapter, and in particular the chapter on "Library Co-operation and the National Central Library" by Colonel Newcombe in *A Primer of Librarianship*.

All these developments in library practice raise new problems and give rise to new ideas for future action. What may we expect from our library service in the next generation? What are new library buildings going to look like and what additional attractions inside them are likely to be contemplated? How far is voluntary co-operation likely to bring the ideal service, and what further part, if any, is the State going to take if the voluntary system should fail? Can we bring every library within the co-operative kingdom, standardize methods and equipment, and generally level up the standard without financial aid from the State? These are some of the many vexed questions which have troubled me during the writing of this work. They are far too big to discuss in detail in a manual for students, and they will form the substance of a further volume—*The Library of the Future*—which I have undertaken to write.

CHAPTER XX

LIBRARIANSHIP ETHICS

The Report of the Public Libraries Committee (par. 267) recommended the advisability of instruction and advice on library ethics being included in any curriculum for library training, and strongly emphasized the importance of the human factor in library administration. For some years now during my lectures on "Library Organization" at the School of Librarianship I have made a point of dealing with this aspect of our profession, not only as regards the need for good manners, patience, tact, self-control, and a keen desire to help in dealing with the public, but also as to the desirability of a self-imposed code of morals to guide the behaviour of the librarian in his relations with his committee and his colleagues on the staff. It may be asked what right I have to assume a part of dictator of morals. I can only reply that I claim no right to such an office, but having studied the subject for very many years, having seen so many times things going wrong for lack of knowledge of what attitude is desirable, and feeling acutely the almost complete absence of any written material on the subject in this country I have taken the liberty of putting on paper my own feelings in the matter as expressed regularly in my lectures. It was nearly thirty years ago that I read an

LIBRARIANSHIP ETHICS

address by Miss Mary Plummer to the Illinois Library Association (April 1903) suggesting a written code of ethics for librarians, and I studied and re-studied these suggestions, finally modifying and re-drafting them in the light of my own experience. I publish them now, not with the desire to thrust them down the throats of the whole profession, but in the hope that they will be taken by new entrants to the library field as fundamental factors in their personal professional relationships.

A profession, according to the dictionary, is "a vocation not mechanical or in trade," and, in so far as it relates to a collective body of persons, may be simply defined as a trade which is organized genuinely for the performance of function. That is to say, it is not merely a collection of individuals who get a living for themselves by the same kind of work, nor a group organized wholly for the economic protection of its members, although, naturally, this aspect is not overlooked. It is really a body of people who carry on their duties in accordance with rules designed to enforce certain standards, with two main objectives—the better protection of its members and the better service of the public. All professions have rules, some of which certainly protect the interests of the community and some which appear to be an imposition on it. These rules generally assume certain responsibilities for the competence and quality of the members, and usually prohibit certain kinds of conduct on the ground that, although the individual

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

may find them profitable, they are not creditable to the organization as a whole, but are "unprofessional." The rules themselves do not always appear justifiable to the ordinary person, but their object is usually perfectly clear—the obligation of maintaining the quality of service and of preventing pecuniary gain from having an undue influence upon the conduct of the individual. Industry as it exists to-day has as its criterion the financial return which it offers to those concerned. The essence of a profession is that, although people enter it to gain a livelihood, the measure of their success is the service they perform, and not the financial gains which may result. They may grow rich. (At any rate the successful doctor or the successful lawyer may, but certainly not the successful librarian.) But the main meaning of their profession is that they make health, or good law, or knowledge. They do not consider that any conduct is necessarily good simply because it increases their income. While a boot manufacturer who retires with a large fortune is considered to have achieved success, whether the boots he made were of leather or brown paper, a civil servant who acted similarly would be impeached.

Doctors, lawyers, ministers, military and naval officers have a certain code which presupposes that they are gentlemen and wish to remain so. Librarians and educators in general have their code still to make, but the fact that these are for the most part unwritten should not mean they are less binding. In making such a code for librarianship and to help

LIBRARIANSHIP ETHICS

it to rank among the professions, what ought to be its requirements? We must have both dignity and humility. If we have to advertise our work we must be careful how we do it and all boasting of ourselves or of our work is out of place. This latter is probably one of the most difficult to avoid. At least, I find it so. It is so easy to exceed the reasonable limits of advertisement and enthusiasm. We all have our limitations and there is always something fresh to learn. Do not be one of those librarians who refrain from introducing a good idea because they saw it in practice by someone else first. Do not be too much concerned when overtime becomes necessary. Pressing matters frequently knock holes in the time-sheet, and librarians, like doctors, should be prepared for action sometimes at unreasonable hours. Where our natural tendencies appear to conflict with the best interests of librarianship they should be curbed accordingly. If complaints reach you that you are too flippant, too undignified to produce the best results to the service, it is wiser to search for any foundation for the criticism and to recognize it if it exists than to abuse the originators of it: if it is said that your methods are antiquated and that you would rather continue in the rut than spoil your own comfort by improving the service, it is only fair to the public and it is your bounden duty not to resent this, but, "if on examination it is proved correct," immediately to set about things with a view to improvement, or else to hand over your job to a fitter person.

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

The librarian's relations with his committee offer many pitfalls to the inexperienced. No librarian should chafe if his committee *as a body* exercise authority. The librarian has more power than any *individual* member of his committee, and the latter should not persistently disregard or distrust the librarian's recommendations. In particular the librarian should not have a close alliance with one member of his committee more than another, except, of course, in some degree with his chairman. It is not difficult for a librarian occasionally to be tempted to visit clubs, refreshment houses, etc., where certain members of the committee may regularly forgather, and confidences are exchanged freely. Awkward situations have arisen in the past which have found the committeeman or the librarian or both faced with the choice of a duty to the public or the sheltering of a friend. All such relationships should be avoided from the start. A librarian should be well versed in politics with a view to providing information to his clients, but it is wise not to ally one's self actively with any political party. I suppose it is not an exaggeration to claim that possibly no profession shows less inclination to wear a party label than the librarian's.

In the matter of the relations with his staff the librarian is bound to help in the promotion of any members of the staff whom he knows to be capable. It is not unknown in many quarters for the transference of an individual to be objected to simply because his loss would be severely felt, although

LIBRARIANSHIP ETHICS

his chances of advancement in the post he held were known to be nil. Although the efficiency of the staff may suffer through frequent transfers and promotions there is some compensation in such a position. The library whose staff members are always obtaining solid advancement benefits in the long run from its reputation in this respect, and can generally be assured of obtaining the best people to fill vacancies when they occur.

Members of the library staff should be kept familiar with events connected with the library in so far as they contribute to the library's welfare, and an assistant's interest in his work. There is sometimes far too much secrecy observed by senior members and even chief librarians in keeping back details affecting seriously, up or down, the future of the juniors, although in most cases there is no need for these matters to be kept confidential at all. There are some people who have a tremendous delight and pride in keeping things, which they themselves have heard frequently only by accident, from the knowledge of those who are the most concerned about them.

Frequently one has come across cases of individuals who are no sooner accustomed to one library than they are anxious to fill another vacancy for possibly an advance of £20 a year in the salary. It is not salary but opportunity for service which makes librarianship a profession, and no such service should be considered in the light *only* of its value as a stepping-stone. Under ordinary circum-

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

stances no one should be prepared to stay in a post for less than one year. No assistant can give his best value on a staff if his main outlook is concentrated on another move all the time. It is as well to remember that a suggestion from the librarian to his committee that he has been offered another post which he will probably accept unless his salary is increased is a doubtful remedy for improvement, and may easily cut both ways. Each member of the staff should be regarded by the librarian as a colleague and should be encouraged to realize that his work, however menial it may appear, is essential for the smooth working of the whole establishment. Far too infrequently in the past have good work or examination successes been withheld from the committee. Such should form a principal feature in the librarian's regular reports. The mere fact that a junior's success in one division of the Library Association's examinations is considered worthy of a note to the committee has a really extraordinary influence on the successful youth. I have remarkable evidence of this.

A very important point which frequently arises is in connection with the giving of testimonials and references. The law insists that one need not give a testimonial, but if it is given then it must be correct. How far should one go in cases of breaches of morality and honesty when writing testimonials? Ethics would say these defects are fundamental and should be mentioned when a recommendation is given, but it is a fatal doctrine surely to allow a

LIBRARIANSHIP ETHICS

single lapse from virtue to attach itself for ever to an otherwise blameless life. On the other hand it certainly is not "cricket" if an individual, known to practice excessive drinking or other vice, even if it has no direct connection with his work, is recommended and no mention made of this defect in character. Again peculiarities in personality may be handicaps in one type of library and yet assets in another.

For instance a person somewhat deaf may not be a desirable assistant in a public reading room where contact with readers is constant, but he may make an excellent cataloguing assistant or head of a department not used by the public. The wise librarian will neither hide nor stress these failings, and the party requiring the recommendation will think first of all of the service to be rendered and will not be prejudiced on account of defects which have not the least likelihood of producing inferior work. But it is a dastardly thing to recommend an assistant who has not been satisfactory simply in order to get rid of him, knowing that his imperfections will be just as much a handicap elsewhere. It is bad in more ways than one. Personally, I should decline to take notice of anyone recommended afterwards from the same source. The librarian has it in his power to make or mar the success of any assistant he recommends, but if his presentation of the case is leavened by charity and his own conscience he cannot be accused of unethical conduct.

Criticism of his staff by the librarian is often

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

necessary, but it should never go beyond the library doors. If it has to be administered to an assistant it brings far better results if done quietly in the chief's room than if shouted out in the hearing of readers or other members of the staff. The latter look to the chief for just treatment. In the assignment of work and hours there should be no marked leniency towards certain members, nor the shifting of unpopular tasks always to those assistants who are the most willing to do them. Long service is not always a reason for favoured treatment, nor a low salary an excuse for poor work. Whatever position or payment may be your lot, carry out your duties just as well as you would if you received ten times the salary given.

Assistants should not grant privileges to their favourites among the readers, nor make fun of mistakes or ignorance or infirmity on the part of users of the library. It is largely on the conduct of the staff that the interpretation of the library by the community depends.

Continued ill-health does not ordinarily entitle an employee to favoured treatment by a public institution, but the latter has a duty to conserve the health of its staff by providing reasonable comfort and hygienic surroundings. As every absence through illness means an additional burden for someone else it is the duty of every member of the staff to keep reasonably fit out of consideration for others. Dangerous games, continuous late hours, etc., should not be undertaken by any person

LIBRARIANSHIP ETHICS

from whom a reasonable day's work of good quality is expected. They are bound to clog the wheels sooner or later.

Illness in the family is not a good reason for absence from duty with pay. It is very necessary for female members of a staff to realize quite early that no institution expects to provide a nurse at its expense for other members of the family. Naturally most committees will be reasonable and treat every case on its merits.

An assistant applying for a new post should take his chief into his confidence. Perhaps one of the commonest grievances is connected with the giving of notice before leaving. Frequently one hears of a member of a staff making all sorts of promises to his prospective new authority in regard to date of commencement, in order to make more certain of his post, and frequently giving no consideration at all to his present employers. This is not fair, and while every reasonable chief is willing to do whatever is possible to facilitate matters, it is only right to expect every effort to be made to apply the agreed notice period.

Librarians should not be eager to publish statistics drawn up to show how much better they are than their predecessors, or how greatly superior their libraries are to those of their neighbours. It is wonderful what results can be produced if you manipulate your figures for the purpose, especially where no explanation is appended. No decent librarian will go out of his way to disparage

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

the work of his predecessors. Even the best librarians have been subject to this breach of good taste. Particularly is this dangerous when members of the staff are concerned. To have to hear reflections on a respected chief to whom they have gladly given loyal service is sufficient to produce an effect opposite to that intended or hoped for.

One often hears the remark, "It is nobody's business what I do outside my official hours." This may be true in some occupations, but a librarian is generally well known to the community, among whom he has great influence and he should be careful not to indulge in habits and tastes which may offend the social or moral sense.

A librarian should inform his committee if he obtains a financial interest in any material device, invention, or book suggested for the library. (It is advisable that he should be entirely unconnected with companies or firms dealing in library equipment of any kind. It may not only raise suspicion in connection with any transactions with his own library, but it will certainly modify the value of any recommendation of the firm's supplies in other quarters.

Payment for outside work done in library hours should only be accepted after approval by the committee, and work outside library hours should not be made a practice, whether for payment or not. If a member of a library staff does a fair day's work in his regular post, he cannot also do work outside without running a risk of injuring his health thereby, thus affecting his normal abilities. There are, of course,

LIBRARIANSHIP ETHICS

many tasks essential to the library movement which have to be the responsibility of volunteers. Without them there would have been little progress. I am not sure that I myself have not been a wholesale sinner in this connection, but I am not a penny the richer for it, and I am sure it will be understood that it is not that kind of work I have in mind so much as work not concerned with professional interests frequently undertaken for payment.

While it is a duty to ensure that a library shall get the benefit of whatever discounts or bonuses are legally procurable, it is still more a duty to your library and yourself to see that no order for books or other supplies is influenced by pecuniary or other personal gains. To have a lunch, or even a drink, at the expense of any person seeking an order is a dangerous thing for both parties, harmless as it may seem to the inexperienced.

There is no space to touch upon many other ethical points, but I hope my readers will take this chapter in the sense and spirit in which it is written, to help the newcomers in particular to decide upon the right action in varying occasions, with a view to producing a high professional spirit, which calls for sound training, unmistakable moral and ethical standards, a sustained enthusiasm, and a firm determination not to be responsible for any word or action which may cast a reflection on the library profession as a whole. Perhaps one day the Library Association may feel it to be its duty to incorporate something of the above in its bye-laws.

SOME EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

A selection of questions set during 1928-34 for the examination in Library Administration for the Diploma of the School of Librarianship, University College (University of London).

1. Draw up for the information of the architect a plan of a reference library, 60 feet long, 30 feet wide, and 15 feet high, light on one long side, detailing the furniture, fittings, and other equipment he should provide, bearing specially in mind the comfort of the readers as well as book accommodation. Give measurements in every case.

2. Draw a plan of an open-access lending library for a population of 60,000, showing positions of bookcases, desks and other tables, gangways, etc., giving dimensions in each case.

3. Describe the various methods of transporting books to local centres in county library schemes, showing the advantages and disadvantages of each. State which method you would recommend, and why

4. A library, with lending library, reading room, and children's departments on the ground floor, and magazine room and reference library on the first floor, estimates its income for the ensuing year at £2,500. What staff would you suggest for such a library, and how would you allocate the income to cover the various needs of the library?

5. "In this country we maintain our stock of books by keeping more of them for reference, in America depreciation of stock is accelerated because greater use is obtained

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

for books in the lending than in the reference library." Explain and criticize this statement.

6. What modifications of the general principles of library planning are necessary in the case of (a) a university library, (b) a municipal public library, and in what directions would you require to vary your factors of accommodation, etc., respectively?

7. Draw a plan of a reference reading room, with open access, showing how many books and readers you would accommodate. The room is 70 feet by 36 feet by 12 feet, with windows on each long side. Measurements of gangways, bookcases, tables, etc., must be given.

8. What, in your opinion, should be the relationship between the home reading department and the reference department of a public library?

9. How far is the standardization of library fittings and equipment practicable, and what advantages may be expected thereby?

10. A recent report states: "Publicity which aims to make the contents of the library better known to readers already members of it might with advantage be tried *wherever the shortage of books is not too prohibitive*." Discuss this critically.

11. In what directions, and to what extent, does the work of the librarian and staff of a county library system differ from the duties of a municipal library staff?

12. To what degree is it desirable that a library committee or a librarian should carry out the duties of a censorship of books?

13. What do you understand by "differential rating system"? Give two instances of its actual operation in the library service.

14. How is the necessary income obtained for (1) an urban municipal library, (2) a county library?

SOME EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

15 To what extent and for what purposes is it possible to obtain loans for municipal library purposes in England? What system of repayment would you recommend, giving reasons for your preference?

16 Which of the contents of the library would you recommend for insurance and what special points would you advocate for inclusion in the policy? State your reasons for giving any such special treatment.

17. Draft a specification for tables and shelving for (a) a combined newspaper and reading room (70 feet by 36 feet), (b) a children's library (55 feet by 30 feet), and (c) an open-access reference library (60 feet by 30 feet).

18. What principles should be borne in mind when arranging for the artificial lighting of (a) a reading and newspaper room, (b) a large open-access library in a university? What do you understand by "local" lighting and "general" lighting, and which system would you recommend for (a) and (b)?

19 State the advantages and disadvantages of the high- and low-pressure systems of heating by hot water, and the "Unity" system of electrical heating

20. In some libraries it is the rule not to provide fiction published less than six months. What are the advantages or disadvantages resulting from such an arrangement, and state whether in your opinion it is a justifiable one.

21. What is the present position of the net-book system as applied to (1) municipal libraries, (2) university libraries, and (3) libraries of scientific institutions?

22. What are the functions of a Book Selection Committee, and what is the value of co-opted members on such a body?

23. Two neighbouring towns, each with a population of approximately 34,000, returned the following statistical information:

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

	A	B
Registered borrowers ...	1,407	4,307
Percentage of population .	4.2	12.9
Expenditure per head ...	6 <i>d.</i>	11 <i>d.</i>
Books and binding ...	17 per cent	13 per cent
Newspapers and periodicals ...	16 per cent	8 per cent
Salaries ...	46 per cent	48 per cent
Other expenditure ...	21 per cent	31 per cent

What do these figures suggest to you, and what variations would you suggest as necessary to meet the proper requirements of the library in each case?

24. It has been suggested that "all entrants into the library service should be required to work through the lower grade in order that they may obtain the necessary technical training, and that entry into the higher grade should only be obtainable by promotion from the lower." How far are you in agreement with such a view, and what disadvantages or advantages would result from such an arrangement?

25. What principles would guide you in choosing a site for (a) a central municipal library and (b) a branch library?

26. A library recently opened has a combined newspaper room and lending department. How does a library and its users benefit or otherwise by such an arrangement?

27. What is a "branch" county library, and how is it organized, administered, and financed?

28. Draft a set of essential rules governing the use of (a) a reference dept. of a university library, (b) a municipal reference library. Both have open access to part of the stock.

29. The following figures are taken from recent reports of public libraries in two industrial areas in the same county and with practically the same number of inhabitants (38,000):

SOME EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

	A	B
Volumes in stock	11,882	34,857
Registered borrowers ...	6.1 per cent	16.5 per cent
Staff	4	5
Rate	1 <i>d.</i>	2.4 <i>d.</i>
Expenditure per head ...	7 <i>d.</i>	1 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i>
Books and binding	27 per cent	22 per cent
Newspapers and periodicals ...	13 per cent	5 per cent
Salaries	41 per cent	30 per cent
Other expenditure	19 per cent	43 per cent

Write a critical commentary regarding the use and development of the two libraries as suggested by the figures quoted.

30. To what extent is it advisable to stock foreign books in a public library, and how would you propose to meet adequately any demand for such?

31. What are the respective functions of a public reference library and a university library, and upon what principles would you base your selection of books in each case?

32. In what respects do the Scottish Public Libraries differ from those of England and Wales in regard to their financing?

33. Criticize the following quotation from a recent article:

"The scandal of inefficient libraries will remain until there is a department of Government responsible for the efficiency of the library system of the country, as the Board of Education is responsible for the efficiency of our educational institutions. The establishment of a central authority would involve grants from public funds, and inspection."

34. The storage of books may be on any one of three systems, (a) alcove system, (b) open-shelf system, (c) stack system. Describe each, and state its essential functions.

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

35. It is argued that the problem of storage-capacity for books is always more important in the plans of a university library than in those for a municipal public library. Is this so, and, if so, why?

36. What variations in the application of the general factors for library planning and equipment are necessary for (a) a municipal public library, (b) a university library, (c) the library of a private scientific institution?

37. In the provision of artificial lighting in a library there are certain fundamental problems which have to be met. What are these problems, and how would you suggest they should be overcome?

38. Draw up suggestions for the fittings and furniture of an open-access reference library of a university, 80 feet by 60 feet by 14 feet, with windows along both long sides. Give a rough plan showing position of shelving, tables, seating accommodation, with dimensions of each item including gangways. Entrance is in the centre of one of the short sides

39. In Brown's *Manual of Library Economy* it is stated: "In American libraries wickets are not usual, the counter being placed so that fairly narrow gangways line up the borrowers; and we have used this plan without ill results in a fairly busy library." In view of this statement, how far is it justifiable to continue protective barriers and wickets in libraries in this country?

40. To what extent, in your opinion, should a library committee have control over the selection of books in (a) a municipal public library, (b) a university library?

41. A library authority is anxious to borrow £20,000 for a library building and a further sum for the equipment of the library. Write a short report for the authority, showing how the money may be obtained and suggesting the best method of repayment.

SOME EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

42. Outline what you consider to be an ideal scheme for a regional library service.

43. "The desire to form an excellent reference collection, which will not be adequately used, should never be indulged at the expense of the more popular lending department." Write a short critical exposition of this quotation.

44. "The public library should be the centre of the intellectual life of the area which it serves." What do you understand this quotation to imply?

45. "The institutional atmosphere of the lending library, together with its cold, uncharitable appearance, must go." How far are you in agreement with this quotation from a recent article, and what measures, if any, would you recommend to bring about the desired change?

46. Draw up a draft of rules you would suggest for a public library governing the following points:

Renewal of books; overdue books; guarantors; age limits, extra tickets

47. Draw a plan of an open-access children's library, 50 feet by 25 feet, with natural lighting on one long side and one end. Lending and reading departments to be provided, and positions of tables, shelving, etc., and dimensions of each to be indicated.

48. What advantages and disadvantages attach to the provision of carrels? In what circumstances would you recommend their inclusion in a library?

49. What special types of shelving and other equipment are desirable in county library village centres?

50. Outline the organization for an efficient county library service.

51. What are the main functions of the National Central Library, and to what extent will these be affected by the establishment of regional library schemes?

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

The following are a selection of the questions set for the same examinations during 1935-38.—

1. Compare the respective constitutions and functions of the British Museum Library and the Library of Congress.

2. Under what specific legislation is international copy-right conducted, and what amendments have been suggested recently to make it more generally effective?

3. What advantages or disadvantages are claimed regarding State control of libraries in this country, and to what extent is it now operative?

4. State two possible methods of international library co-operation

5. What measures of national library co-operation are now operative in this country, and what benefits are expected to result therefrom?

6. What are the principal differences to be noted in comparing the public library system of the United States with that of the United Kingdom, and what particular features in the former system would you be prepared to recommend for adoption in this country?

✓ 7. From what sources is the income of university libraries in this country mainly derived?

8. What are the special functions of non-public business libraries, and how far is it possible for the public general library to undertake these as an ordinary section of its work?

9. Write a short account of what is known as the "Sheffield experiment in co-operation."

10. Give a comparative account of the organization of school libraries in the United States and in the United Kingdom.

SOME EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

11 Draw up suggestions for the architect in regard to the artificial lighting of (a) a general reading room for newspapers and periodicals, (b) an open-access reference library reading room, and (c) an eight-floor book stack

12 In what circumstances would you recommend the installation of "rolling" book-cases? Enumerate the advantages or disadvantages of any type of "rolling" stacks with which you are familiar

13 Draft a report for a committee on the heating apparatus of a library, showing the respective merits or demerits attaching to (a) solid fuel, (b) oil fuel, (c) electricity, as a generating medium

14 Designs for some of the newest library buildings are based upon the unit system of adjustable partitions. What is this system, and what advantages may be claimed for it over earlier methods of construction?

15 Certain new library buildings have been deliberately planned to include a number of shops as part of the designs. In what circumstances is this arrangement to be recommended, and what results are anticipated to ensue from such a combination?

16 To what extent is a work having copyright in this country protected in (a) France, (b) the United States, and (c) Canada?

17 Write an account of the constitution and functions of (a) *Bibliothèque Nationale* or (b) the Library of Congress.

18 Write a critical summary of the opinions recently expressed by the Council of the Library Association on the question of State control of our public libraries

19 What steps would you take to meet the needs of a reader in want of a scarce pamphlet not available in your library and not obtainable by purchase?

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

20. What do you understand by a "Union Catalogue," and what purposes does it serve? Describe any one with which you are familiar

✓ 21. Outline a scheme for school libraries on co-operative methods for a large town.

✓ 22. It is argued that closer co-operation between officers of public libraries and industrial users of the libraries is urgently called for. What do you understand by this, and what solutions of the difficulty occur to you?

23. Various types of instruments for reproducing books and manuscripts are now on the market. Describe any one with which you are familiar, and state what special advantages may accrue to the library having such an instrument at its disposal

24. In what circumstances would it be desirable and advantageous to include a "book tower" and a "Snead book conveyor" in a library?

25. State the factors of spacing and accommodation you would use in the planning of a large open-access reference library to house 10,000 volumes

26. What principles need to be borne in mind in planning the lighting (natural and artificial) of (a) a reference reading room and (b) a large book store, especially in relation to economy in space and consumption of electricity?

27. Write a report for a library authority on a proposal for the establishment of a public commercial library in a large town already possessing a general municipal library.

28. A library authority is considering the provision of shelving in the various departments of its library. Write a report showing the kinds of shelving you would recommend should be installed, giving your reasons for your suggestions.

SOME EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

✓29 A library authority of a town of 50,000 inhabitants is anxious to provide a public library planned on the most up-to-date lines, especially in regard to attractiveness and comfort, without extravagance. Draw up a report containing your recommendations as to departments and furnishing which you would consider as (a) essential and (b) desirable in such circumstances

30 What procedure is necessary in order to secure copy-right in a book published (a) in the United Kingdom, (b) in the United States?

✓31. By what procedure does a university library in this country obtain its necessary finance, and how does the method agree with, or differ from, that followed by a municipal library?

32 State the arguments for and against independent departmental libraries within a university. What methods of administration would you recommend for the efficient working of such departments?

33 Write a report embodying suggestions for the equipment and artificial lighting of a college open-access reading room, giving the factors of space, size, etc., where necessary for a room 50 feet by 40 feet and 16 feet from floor to ceiling. The location of tables, shelving, catalogues, etc., should be shown on a rough plan.

34 Write a short descriptive account of the interior planning of *one* of the following new libraries —

(a) Cambridge University.

(b) University of London.

(c) Brotherton Library in Leeds University

35 In what ways is the planning of a library affected by its character and functions?

✓36 How far is it true to say that close classification in the stack rooms of a large and quickly growing library is uneconomical and unnecessary?

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

37. Describe as briefly as possible the whole scheme of library co-operation as practised in this country.

38. What are the functions of microphotography, and what advantages are likely to accrue to libraries in which it is practised?

39. Give a short account of the libraries of (a) Austria or (b) Switzerland.

40. What should be the respective functions of the architect and the librarian in relation to the planning and equipment of a library building?

41. Draw a plan of a public library on two floors showing what departments you would consider essential, and the location of each department. No measurements need be given, but staff rooms should be allowed for and the positions of all doors, windows, corridors, etc., indicated. Good natural lighting can be assumed on the south and west sides of the building.

42. A reference library, 40 by 25 feet, on open-access principles has been allowed for in a building. Draw a plan showing how many readers you would propose to accommodate in such a room, giving details of space per reader, sizes of tables, gangways, etc., and shelving accommodation.

43. To what extent, and for what reasons, would you advocate the adoption of colour schemes in the planning and equipment of a library?

44. What are the chief problems to be met in connection with library floorings, and what particular recommendations would you make for the floors of (a) a much-used reference reading room, (b) a general newspaper and periodicals reading room, (c) a book store?

45. What are the functions of "carrels," what advantages or disadvantages attach to their use, and how would you

SOME EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

propose to make provision for them in a library not specially planned to include them?

46. Write a short essay giving details of the functions and organization of the headquarters building of a county library

47. What do you understand by a "regional library scheme"? What is its purpose and its method of operation?

48. How would you propose to arrange for the effective display and consultation of periodicals in (a) the general reading room of a public library, (b) a university library, and (c) a private business library?

The following questions are selected from recent papers set for the Final Examination—Part III (Advanced Library Administration) of the syllabus of the Library Association. The complete papers, with suggested text and reference books, will be found in the Library Association Year Books.

49. Outline the special features and functions of any *three* of the undermentioned libraries —

- (a) London County Council Education Library.
- (b) Dr. Williams's Library, Gordon Square, London.
- (c) The National Library of Scotland, Edinburgh.
- (d) La Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris.

50. State the principal recommendations in the Report of the Departmental Committee on Public Libraries, and show what influence they have had on library provision and policy since 1927

51. Outline the constitution and objects of the International Federation of Library Associations.

52. Discuss methods of co-operation possible between libraries in secondary schools and urban and county libraries.

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

53 Draw a plan of the various offices and administration rooms necessary for the central public library of a large city of 500,000 population. Indicate their positions in relation to each other and to the public departments, and give a list of the principal items of furniture required in each room.

54 State what you know of the care, repair, and treatment of manuscripts

55 Write a concise essay on the provision of modern fiction in rate-supported libraries, emphasizing the policy you would recommend

56. Discuss the question of grading library staffs into professional and clerical classes, indicating the duties to be assigned to each group, and the educational and professional qualifications to be required of persons appointed thereto. In what kind and size of library would it be most convenient to apply the principle?

57. Compare the Browne, Newark, and Dickman charging systems, stating the advantages and disadvantages of each

58 Give an account of the development of co-operation among libraries in the British Isles.

59. Write a brief account of the early history of the library movement in Great Britain and the United States of America prior to 1850.

60. In what way do the organization and functions of a library for scientific research differ from those of an ordinary university or municipal library? Illustrate your answer by reference to any scientific research library known to you.

61 Outline the duties that may properly be assigned to the cataloguing department of a large library system.

62. It has been said that "all the libraries which have been designed by architects, without the help and advice of

SOME EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

a capable librarian . . . are bad " Develop this statement and illustrate by reference to any public or university libraries known to you.

63 What methods would you recommend to avoid the handling of valuable documents by students and others who wish to consult them?

64 Write notes on the careers and library activities of *three* of the following.—

- (a) Richard Copley Christie
- (b) Edward Edwards.
- (c) Richard Garnett
- (d) Thomas Greenwood

✓65. What do you consider to be the chief developments in the post-war planning of *either* (a) university libraries, *or* (b) municipal libraries? Illustrate your answer by reference to modern buildings with which you are familiar.

66. State what you know of The International Institute of Documentation, and The International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation. Describe their constitutions and activities, and the effect of their work on the library service of Great Britain.

SELECT BIBLIOGRAPHY

The following list of references has been deliberately selected from a mass of published material in order that students should not be faced with an overwhelming programme for further reading. Every item has some definite connection with matter in this volume, and the greater number of the works mentioned are published in this country and should therefore easily be accessible. The other works noted have been included because they appeared to the author to be of special importance, or because the literature of this country lacked the particular information desired. Readers requiring a more extensive literature will naturally consult the bibliographies heading the list below. It must be especially noted that the "general" works will, of course, contain information on most of the topics mentioned in the several chapter headings, but I have had up-to-dateness severely in mind in selecting the various references throughout.

(Place of publication: London, unless otherwise stated.)

ABBREVIATIONS USED

- L.A.R. = Library Association Record.
- L. Asst. = Library Assistant.
- L. Rev. = Library Review.
- L.W. = Library World.
- Libn. = Librarian and Book World.
- Liby. Jnl. = Library Journal (U.S.).

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

BIBLIOGRAPHIES

- AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. Library literature, 1921-32: A supplement to Cannons' Bibliography of Library Economy, 1876-1920, pp. 430. 1934. *Chicago*.
- BURTON (M.) and VOSBURGH (M. E.). A bibliography of librarianship: classified and annotated guide to the library literature of the world, selected, pp. 176. 1934.
- CANNONS (H. G. T.). Bibliography of library economy: professional periodical literature from 1876 to 1920, pp. 680. 1927. *Chicago*.
- LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. Years' work in librarianship. *Annual*, 1928—

GENERAL WORKS

- BOSTWICK (A. E.). The American public library. 4th ed. pp. 471. 1929. *New York*.
- BROWN (J. W.) Manual of library economy. 5th ed., by W. C. B. Sayers pp. 533. 1937.
- BUTLER (P.). Introduction to library science, pp. xvi, 118. 1933. *Chicago*.
- CROZET (LEO.). Manual pratique de bibliothécaire, pp. vii, 279. 1932. *Paris*.
- DOUBLEDAY (W. E.) ed. A primer of librarianship, pp. 223. 1931.
- DRURY (G.) ed. The library and its organization: reprints of articles and addresses, pp. 519, 1924. *New York*.
- KENYON (SIR F.). Libraries and museums, pp. 79. 1930.
- LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. Public and secondary school libraries, pp. 32. 1929.
- Small municipal libraries, pp. 129. 2nd ed. 1934.
- A survey of libraries, 1936-37. 1938.
- RANGANATHAN (S. R.). The five laws of library science, pp. xxxii, 458. Madras L. A. 1931.

SELECT BIBLIOGRAPHY

CHAPTER I AND LIBRARY POLICY AND DEVELOPMENT AS A WHOLE

- BAKER (E. A.) The public library, pp. 245. 1924.
- CARNEGIE UNITED KINGDOM TRUST The public library system of Great Britain and Ireland, 1921-1923, pp. 62, lxxxv. 1924. *Edinburgh*
- Some impressions of the public library system of the United States of America, 1926, pp. 90. 1926. *Edinburgh*.
- Further impressions, pp. 47. 1928. *Edinburgh*.
- CHUBB (L.) The activities of a public library in a provincial town of medium extent. L.A.R., 4th ser., v. 1, 1934, pp. 6-14.
- CREED (W. T.) An ideal for London: some suggestions toward the reorganization of London's public library service. L. Asst., v. 16, 1922, pp. 174-80.
- HALBERT (J. F.) Spending a scholarship. a tour of London's libraries L. Asst., v. 25, 1932, pp. 172-81
- HEADICAR (B. M.) The library of the future pp. 122 1936.
- HEWITT (A. R.) Law relating to public libraries in England and Wales, pp. 166. 1930.
- Summary of public library law, pp. 78. 1932.
- MCCOLVIN (L. R.) The future of public libraries L. Rev., v. 3, 1932, pp. 231-36
- MINTO (J.) A history of the public library movement in Great Britain and Ireland, pp. 366 1932.
- O'LEARY (J. G.) Library policy in the new town. L.A.R., 4th ser., v. 1, 1934, pp. 205-9.
- PURDIE (J. B.) Library work in cities and outlying districts: a comparison. L. Asst., v. 24, 1931.
- SANDERSON (C. R.) Library law: a textbook for the examinations in library organization, pp. 164. 1925.

SELECT BIBLIOGRAPHY

- SIMPSON (F. B.). The constitution and powers of public library committees, L.A.R., new ser., v. 7, 1929, supplement, pp 16-19.
- SPARKE (A.). Policy. L.W., v. 27, 1925, pp. 211-13.
- STEWART (J. D.). Developments since the report of the Public Libraries Committee of the Board of Education, 1927. L A.R., 4th ser., v. 1, 1934, pp 348-55.
- Possibilities in the development of inter-library relations in London and the London area. L A.R., new ser., v. 4, 1926, pp. 7-21.
- *ed.* Report on the municipal library system of London and the Home Counties, 1929. 1931.
- UNITED KINGDOM, BOARD OF EDUCATION. Report on public libraries in England and Wales [Cmd 2868]. pp 356 1927. Reprinted 1935
- WALKER (J. E.). Organization of a new library service. L.A.R., 3rd ser., v. 1, 1931, pp. 73-84.

CHAPTERS II-III

- BALLINGER (SIR J.). Variations of the Public Libraries Acts by private legislation. L.A.R., v. 3, 1901, pp. 198-204.
- BULLEN (R. F.). Library loans. L. Asst., v. 8, 1911, pp. 170-74.
- DAVIS (C. T.). Library insurance, *in* Greenwood's Library Year Book, 1900-1, pp. 52-56.
- INSURANCE FOR LIBRARIES. Liby. Jnl., v. 82, 1927, p. 828.
- LIVERPOOL ASSESSMENT CASE: Judgment of Mr. Justice Kennedy. L.A.R., v. 7, 1905, pp. 286-88.
- MITCHELL (J. M.). Library budgets. L.A.R., 3rd ser., v. 2, 1932, pp. 298-304.
- Ogilvie (A.). Public library rating in Scotland. Libn., v. 20, 1931, pp. 238-39.
- STABBS (A. J.). Fire. Libn, v. 2, 1912, pp. 286-89.

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

CHAPTERS IV-V

- BEST (M. S.). Women and librarianship. L.A.R., v. 23, 1921, pp. 399-409.
- BURTON (G. L.). The value of association. L. Asst., v. 19, 1926, pp. 116-22.
- COWLEY (W. H.). The profession of librarianship, pp. 57. 1928. *Washington*.
- FRIEDEL (J. H.). Training for librarianship, pp. 224. 1921. *Philadelphia*.
- LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. Salaries and conditions: recommendations of the Library Association Council. L.A.R., 4th ser., v. 1, 1934, pp. 130-31, 223-25.
- McCOLVIN (L. R.). Salaries and conditions of service. L.A.R., 4th ser., v. 1, 1934, pp. 302-7
- MINTO (J.). Education and training for librarianship. L. Asst., v. 17, 1924, pp. 236-42.
- POLLITT (W.). Staff training and organization. L.A.R., new ser., v. 3, 1925, pp. 81-93.
- SHARP (H. A.) Approach to librarianship 1934.
- SMITH (F. S.). Report on the hours, salaries, training, and conditions of service in British municipal libraries, 1931, pp. 39. 1932.
- TAI (T. C.). Professional education for librarianship, pp. 259. 1925. *New York*.
- THORNE (W. M.). Librarianship as a career for women. L. Asst., v. 18, 1925, pp. 21-22, 33-35.
- TILLIE (H. A.). Woman in librarianship. L.W., v. 31, 1928, pp. 144-45.
- WALTON (M.). This graduate problem. L.A.R., 4th ser, v. 1, 1934, pp. 166-69.
- WISKER (E.). The public librarian: function and training. L. Asst., v. 24, 1931, pp. 228-32, 253-54.
- WOOD (H. G.). Staff conditions and efficiency. L.W., v. 31, 1929, pp. 278-82.

SELECT BIBLIOGRAPHY

CHAPTERS VI-XIV

- AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. Essentials in library planning, pp. 58. 1928. *Chicago*.
- ANSELL (E.). The new Cambridge University Library. L.A.R., 4th ser., v. 1, 1934, pp. 399-413.
- "ARCHITECT AND BUILDING NEWS." Notes on planning: libraries, Nos 3426 to 3436, Aug. 17th to Oct. 26th, 1934.
- "ARCHITECTURAL FORUM." Special number on museums and libraries June 1932. *United States*.
- BRISCOE (W. A.) Library planning, pp. 141. 1927.
- FREER (P.). Library planning (reprinted from "South African Libraries"), pp. 12. 1934. *Johannesburg*. (A very useful summary of general principles)
- GEROULD (J. T.). The college library building, its planning and equipment, pp. 116. 1932. *New York*.
- GILLGRASS (A. H.). Fittings and furniture for county library centres. L.A.R., new ser., v. 3, 1933, conference supplement, pp. xxxi-xxxiv.
- HAIGH (F.). The one-room branch. L. Asst., v 24, 1931, pp. 221-23.
- HEADICAR (B. M.). Some recent improvements in library lighting and equipment. *Revue du livre*, Jan.-Feb., 1934, pp. 81-93. *Paris*.
- ILLUMINATING ENGINEERING SOCIETY. The artificial lighting of libraries, pp. 7. 1931.
- JAST (L. S.). The planning of a great library building, pp. 31. 1927.
- LAMB (J. P.). The interior decoration of libraries. Libn., v. 22, 1932, pp 67-70.
- LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. Library buildings: their heating, lighting, and decoration, pp. 68. 1934.

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

LIBRARY PLANNING AND DESIGN. Libn., vols. 11-12, 1922-23.

LINGARD (H.). The artificial lighting of libraries. Libn., v. 22, 1932, pp. 95-98.

LYNN (R. W.). Birkenhead Central Library. L.A.R., 4th ser., v 1, 1934, pp. 308-13.

MUNTHE (W.). Modern American library buildings. L.A.R., 3rd ser., v. 2. 1932.

NEW SHEFFIELD CENTRAL PUBLIC LIBRARY. L.A.R., 4th ser., v 1, 1934, pp. 213-23.

NOWELL (C.). Manchester Central Library. L.A.R., 4th ser., v. 1, pp. 243-61.

OFFOR (R.) The Brotherton Library, University of Leeds. L.A.R., v 38, 1936, pp. 501-6

ORMEROD (J.). Branch libraries. L.W., v. 33, 1931, pp. 259-63.

PARTRIDGE (R.). About steel furniture. L. Asst., v 22, 1929, pp. 27-28.

PLANNING OF LIBRARY BUILDINGS (24 fundamental rules). Appendix C in Report of the Public Libraries Committee [Cmd. 2868], pp 332-36.

RANCK (S. H.). Ventilating and lighting library buildings. L. Asst., v. 22, 1929, pp. 222-26, 239-43.

TURNER (P. J.). Library buildings: their planning and equipment, pp 43 1929. *Montreal*

WALKER (J. E.). Some notes on library planning: Hendon Central Library. L.W., v. 33, 1931, pp. 220-24.

YOUNG, OSMOND & YOUNG, LTD. Heating and ventilating by electricity, pp 132. [1930]

See also catalogues of various library equipment firms, and files of "Architect and Building News" and other architectural journals.

SELECT BIBLIOGRAPHY

CHAPTERS XV AND XVIII

- BUSHNELL (G. H.) University librarianship, pp 219. 1930.
- CUMING (AGNES). The organization of a university library.
L A.R., new ser, v. 4, 1926, pp 129-37.
- FLACK (G. E.). University library finance. L.A.R., new
ser., v. 8, 1930, pp 14-28.
- KOCH (T. W.). On university libraries, pp. 55. 1924. *Paris*.
- NEWCOMBE (L.) The university and college libraries of
Great Britain and Ireland 1927.
- OFFOR (R.). The planning of university library buildings.
L.A.R., 1929, pp. 1-11.
- OXFORD UNIVERSITY. Library provision in Oxford, pp. 152.
1931. *Oxford*.
- PAGE (B. S.). A statistical survey of university libraries.
L.A.R., 4th ser, v. 1, 1934, pp. 139-41.
- RYE (R. A.) The new University of London Library.
L.A.R., v. 39, 1937, pp 205-9.
- UNIVERSITY GRANTS COMMITTEE. Annual reports and
statistics.
- WORKS (G. A.). College and university library problems,
pp. 142 1927 *Chicago*.

CHAPTER XVI

- SAYERS (W. C. B.). Banning of books in libraries. L. Rev.,
v. 1, 1928, pp. 185-87.
- SNAITH (S). Censorship L. Asst., v. 21, 1928, pp. 128-42.
- WELSFORD (P. S. J.) The Net Book Agreement. L.A.R.,
3rd ser., v. 1, pp. 271-73.
- WELLARD (J. H.) Book selection 1937.

CHAPTER XVII

- GORDON (R. J.). Some tendencies. L. Asst., v. 24, 1931,
pp. 53-60.
- LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. London and Home Counties
Branch. Public library rules. L.A.R., new ser., v. 6,
1928, pp. 206-8.

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

CHAPTER XIX

- CARNEGIE UNITED KINGDOM TRUST. Annual reports.
- COWLEY (J. D.). The organization of county branch libraries. L.A.R., 3rd ser., v. 1, 1931.
- GRAY (D.). County library systems, pp. 184. 1922.
- LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. Annual reports on county libraries.
- MACLEOD (R. D.). County rural libraries: their policy and organization, pp. 292. 1923.
- NATIONAL CENTRAL LIBRARY. Annual reports.
- NEWCOMBE (L.) Library co-operation in the British Isles. pp. 184. 1937.
- OSBORNE (E.). Decentralization in county library administration. L.A.R., 3rd. ser., v. 2, 1932, pp. 169-76.
- REPORT OF PUBLIC LIBRARIES COMMITTEE. (Cmd. 2868 above), Chaps. III and V.
- RIDLEY (A. F.). Information bureaux and liaison with national and local libraries. Aslib. Conf. Rept., 1927, pp. 140-45.
- WRIGHT (R.). The work of the South-Eastern Regional Library System. L.A.R., 4th ser., v. 1, 1934, pp. 209-213.

CHAPTER XX

- BOLTON (C. K.). The ethics of librarianship: a proposal for a revised code, pp. 9. 1922. *Philadelphia*.
- BOSTWICK (A. E.). Some principles of business-like conduct in libraries, pp. 29. 1928. *Chicago*.

INDEX

- "Adrema" duplicating machine, 164
- Age limits, 228
- Alcove system, 133-134
- "All-glass" frontages, 85
- Association of Special Libraries, 68
- Associations, advantages of membership, 67
- Attaché cases, etc., forbidden in libraries, 232-233
- Bibliography, 280
- Book accommodation factors, 115-118, 159-160
- Book selection, 187-211
 - University libraries, 200-202
- Book towers, 126
- Books—
 - for children, 199-200
 - foreign, purchase of, 211
 - suspect, 191-194
- Books to be shown at exits, 234
- Branch libraries, 119, 148-153
- Brotherton Library, Leeds University, 202
- Buildings and equipment, 69-173
- Bye-laws, 214
- Card *versus* printed catalogue, 164-165
- Carrels, 181-185
- Casement windows, 86
- Catalogue cabinets, Tilted drawer, 162-163
- Censorship by committees, 192-196
- Chairs, spring-seated, 110
- Clock switches, 100
- College libraries, 174-186
- Colour schemes, 88
 - shelving, 114
- Committee—
 - duties, 24
 - recommending, 23
 - reporting, 24
- Committees and their powers, 22
- Conveyor for books, 138-139
- Co-operation in library work, 247-251
- Co-opted members of committees, 23
- Corridors, 78
- County branch libraries, 241-243
- County libraries, 237-251
- Delivery stations, 150-151
- Departmental libraries, 175-179
- Departments, Location of, 72
- "Dextigraph" duplicating machine, 173
- Differential rating, 243-244
- Diplomas, 48-49
- Duplicate pay collection, 197-198
- Electric heating systems, 83
- Estimates, preparation of, 27
- Ethics of librarianship, 252-263
- Examination questions, 265
- "Expanco" flooring, 77
- Expenditure, 36-46
 - comparative figures, 41
 - per caput*, 30-31
 - percentage under various heads, 36

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

Favouritism to readers, 260
 Fiction in libraries, 188-191, 196-199
 location of, 117
 Filing-cars, 173
 Film photography, 172
 Finance, 27-46
 Fines, 221-224
 Fireproof materials, 76
 Floorings, 77
 Foreign books, purchase of, 211
 Frankfurt-am-Main, plan suggested for new library, 134-136
 Fuel for heating, 82

 Galleries in reading rooms, 131
 Guarantor question, 219-220

 Health of staff, 260-261
 Heating, 80-85
 electric systems, 83
 hot-water systems, 80
 oil-burning boilers, 81
 radiators, 82
 Holiday opening, 227
 Holidays of staff, 65-66
 Hot-water systems of heating, 80
 Hours of opening lending library, 218
 Hours of work, 63-66

 Illness of staff, 65-66
 Income from rate, 33
 Income tax exemption, 44
 Ink, use of, in reading rooms, 235
 Insurance, 44-46

 Juvenile department, 142
 factors, 75

 Lantern slides, filing of, 141

Lecture hall, 73
 factors, 75, 145
 Leicester Public Libraries, Southfields Branch, 218
 Lending library—
 arrangement and equipment, 111-121
 factors, 74
 lay-out, 113
 rules, 218-229
 Leytonstone Branch Library, 186
 Librarian—
 appointment, 26
 duties, 60-61
 outside activities, 262
 qualifications, 47-55
 relations with committee, 256
 relations with staff, 256-257
 salary, 39-40
 Library Association examinations, 49
 Library profession, reasons for entering, 50-54
 Lifts, 138-139
 Lighting, 85-102
 artificial, 89
 clock switches, 100
 indirect, 95
 individual, 91
 local, 89
 natural, 85
 overhead, 90
 reference library, 136
 shelf, 95-102
 skylights, 86
 top lighting 86-87
 two-way switches, 100-101
 wall cases, 97-100
 Loans, 33-35
 Location of departments, 175-179

INDEX

- London School of Economics, 163
 - Catalogue lounge, 163
 - Haldane Reading Room, 133
 - Law Library, 94, 133
 - Research stalls, 182-183
- "Luminophor," 168-169
- Manchester Central Library, 127
- Metal shelving, 114, 132
- Microphotography, 169
- Misappropriation of books, 231
- Net Book Agreement, 204-211
- Newspaper and reading rooms—
 - diagram showing suggested lay-out, 108
 - factors for spacing, 107
 - planning and equipment, 103-110
 - tables 106-107
- Newspaper cuttings, filing of, 140
- Newspaper rooms, artificial lighting of, 92
- Newspapers, display stands, 105-106
 - provision of, 103-105
- Newspapers and periodicals, expenditure on, 37-38
- Oil and coke fuel compared, 82
- Oil-burning boilers, 81
- Open access in county libraries, 244
- "Outlier" libraries, 249-250
- Pamphlets, storage of, 140
- Partitions, 76
- Periodical racks, 109-110
- Periodicals, display methods, 109
- Permits in university libraries, 230
- Photo-reproducing machines, 166-173
- Photostat, 167-168
- "Polecon" Periodical Rack, 110
- "Polecon" Shelf Hand Lamp, 98-100
- Professional ethics, 252-263
- Professional training, 48, 55-57
- Public Libraries Acts, 1850-1919, 17 *et seq.*
- Public Libraries (Ireland) Acts, 32
- Public Libraries (Scotland) Act, 1920, 32
- Publicity, 31-32
- Pupil assistants, 66
- Radiating stacks, 113
- Radiators, 82
- Rate, 1850-1919, 17-20
 - anomalies, 28-29
 - how calculated, 27
 - stabilized for one year, 29-30
- Rates and taxes, 43
- Reading lamps, 92-94
- Reading room area, 73
- Reference Library—
 - area, 74
 - factors for spacing, 130, 132-133
 - lighting, 136
 - planning and equipment, 122-141
 - rules, 216-218
 - stock, 122-125
- Regional libraries, 248-250
- Regional scheme for London, 127-129

A MANUAL OF LIBRARY ORGANIZATION

- Reproducing machines, 163-164
- Research stalls, London School of Economics, 182-183
- Reservation of books, 224-225
- Reserve book stock, 126, 130-131
- Rheims, Carnegie Public Library, 153
- Rolling stacks, 160-162
- Rubber flooring, 77
- Rules and regulations—
 - rate-supported libraries, 212-229
 - university libraries, 230-236
- Salaries and wages, 38-40
- School of Librarianship, 48-49, 55-57
- Seditious books, 193
- Seminar libraries, 179-181
- Sheaf catalogue, 165
- Shelving, 154-162
 - adjustability, 114-115, 157
 - bracket type, 157
 - colour schemes, 114
 - heavy books, 116
 - Lending Library, 114
 - lighting, 95-102
 - metal, 114, 132
 - Reference Library, 132, 137-138
 - "Steeletta," 157-158
 - "Vernier," 115
 - wall, 116-117
 - wood *versus* metal, 154-157
- Sites for buildings, 70
- Skylights, 86
- Smoking in libraries, 215
- Snead Book Conveyor, 138-139
 - special locking device, 183
- Snead Reading Lamp, 93-94
- Snead Rolling Cases, 161-162
- Snead Stack Aisle Light Reflector, 96-97
- Stack lighting, 137
- Stack rooms, factors for spacing, 158-160
- Staff—
 - grading, 67
 - health questions, 260-261
 - illness and duty, 65-66
- Staff and training, 47-62
- Staff rooms, 146-147
- Stained-glass windows, 86
- Staircases, 78
- "Steeletta" steel shelving, 116
- Students' rooms, 145
- Sunday duty, 64
- Sunday opening, 226-227
- Table lamps, 92-94
- Tables—
 - Reference Library, 130, 133, 139
 - single- and double-sided, 133
- Teaching staff, special privileges, 234
- Testimonials to staff, 258-259
- Top lighting, 86-87
- "Unity" system of electric heating, 83
- University libraries, 174-186
 - book selection, 200-202
 - permits, 230
 - rules and regulations, 230-236
- Ventilation, 79
- "Vernier" shelving, 115
- Vertical files, 140

INDEX

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Volumes per foot of shelving, 115 | Windows, 86-88 |
| Voluntary assistants, 66 | casement, 86 |
| | stained-glass, 86 |
| Wicket gates, 112 | Women as librarians, 42, 58- |
| Wigan-Snead Prismatic Stack | 60 |
| Reflector, 96-97 | Women's reading rooms, 144 |



GEORGE ALLEN & UNWIN LTD
LONDON 40 MUSEUM STREET, W C 1
CAPE TOWN 73 ST. GEORGE'S STREET
TORONTO 91 WELLINGTON STREET WEST
BOMBAY: 15 GRAHAM ROAD, BALLARD ESTATE
WELLINGTON, N.Z. 8 KINGS CRESCENT, LOWER HUTT
SYDNEY, NSW AUSTRALIA HOUSE, WYNYARD SQUARE

